

CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECT OF ADVERTISING ON CONSUMER RESPONSES

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of
De Montfort University for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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March 2002

ABSTRACT

In the light of both growing competition and international business activities, there are increasing opportunities in many aspects of international marketing, particularly in advertising. Among different areas, culture is the broadest environmental dimension affecting consumer behaviour. There is a need to understand the impact of cultural difference on consumer behaviour, which will affect successful international advertising.

Despite an increasing economic development and personal income in China, there have been very few empirical investigations into international advertising between the UK and China, especially with cross-cultural methodologies. This thesis is aimed to partly filling this gap by providing a cross-cultural analysis of three key concepts in the context of international advertising between the UK and China, and both countries' youth markets: cultural values, advertising appeals, attitudes towards advertising in general.

Using survey data from China and the UK, comparisons of advertising exposure were made. An advertising content analysis of magazine advertisements revealed that the important similarities and/or differences in cultural values were expressed through the advertising messages of each country. Analyses by paired-samples *t* tests identified the two countries' young adults as relatively homogenous groups in their responses to emotional advertising appeals. A scale for measuring attitudes towards advertising was tested for its cross-cultural validity using factor analysis. The study revealed that this American generated instrument of attitudinal scale did not possess cross-cultural equivalence with the UK and Chinese cultures. A set of measuring instruments was developed reflecting these attitudinal differences. Further analysis of *t* tests identified different perceptions of the new four-factor attitudinal statements from the results of factor analysis. Conclusions are drawn for marketing theory and practice.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my immense gratitude for Professor Peter Baron, my Director of Studies, for his continuous patience, guidance, support and constructive criticisms throughout this research.

My sincere gratitude and admiration are expressed to Mr. David Pickton, my supervisor, for his guidance, advice and enthusiasm for the research.

My many thanks also go to all those who have helped me in so many ways towards the completion of this theses.

Finally, I am indebted to and must thank my parents for their financial support and encouragement throughout my study.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

This research aims to examine the effect of advertising on consumer responses within UK and Chinese youth markets by employing methods established in cross-cultural research. The research intends to help advertisers' and marketers' decisions on what promotional strategies to adopt in international advertising environments and to provide further insight into the relative effectiveness of advertising appeals in international advertising messages. The key concepts which have been examined are:

- 1) Cultural values;
- 2) Advertising appeals;
- 3) Attitudes towards advertising in general.

The research is empirically based and is characterised by a cross-cultural comparative approach. Cultural values were examined by comparison using advertising content analysis of UK and Chinese magazine advertisements. The advertising appeals were examined using a selected number of magazine advertisements by the two nations' young adults. The attitudes towards advertising in general were examined using Larkin's 5-point scale based on 4 attitudinal statements among UK and Chinese young adults. In addition, the exposure of the knowledge of the general information about advertising in UK and Chinese youth markets were also investigated using the survey data.

This introductory chapter presents a brief overview of the research project, including the objectives, the perceived power of magazine advertisements, the definition of the target population, and the overall layout of this thesis.

1.1 The Research Project

As company international sales have increased and as international business activities have assumed a more important role in corporate operations, there are increasingly new opportunities for advertising. Every year, the strength and importance of advertising on a worldwide scale develops and grows due, in part, to improved economic developments, increased disposable incomes, and the expansion and development of national economies (Bovee and Arens, 1986). Table 1.1 presents the latest figures available showing that total global advertising expenditure reached US\$290 billion in 1999, an increase of over US\$15 billion on 1998. Total global advertising expenditure in 1999 increased by 3.03% on 1998 (Global Adspend Trends, 2001). In Asia Pacific, the advertising expenditure during the same period increased 30.33% on 1998 (see Table 1.2). In the ten years from 1990 to 1999, advertising expenditure more than doubled in real terms in 24 countries. The biggest increase has been in China, where advertising expenditure grew by just over 750% (Global Adspend Trends, 2001).

Table 1.1 Global Adspend by Continent, 1990-1999
(\$millions)

Year	North	Europe	Asia	Latin	Middle	Africa	Total
1990	79,416	59,543	36,948	5,469	362	740	182479
1991	76,255	60,669	40,163	5,978	371	930	184366
1992	89,316	67,634	42,016	7,686	605	1,152	208410
1993	82,605	58,753	45,460	9,486	700	1,159	198163
1994	89,604	63,799	51,485	12,107	1,555	1,326	219877
1995	95,396	75,340	59,813	11,646	1,805	1,519	245337
1996	103,325	77,075	59,884	16,077	1,971	1,517	259849
1997	110,754	77,250	57,684	18,223	2,121	1,779	267810
1998	118,623	83,435	48,557	20,092	2,199	1,812	274,719
1999	126,806	86,509	55,601	17,011	2,368	1,844	290,139

Source: Global Adspend Trends, 2001.

Table 1.2 Percentage Annual Changes on Global Adspend

Year	North America	Europe	Asia Pacific	Latin America	Middle East	Africa	Total
1992	21.1%	9.6%	-4.1%	19.3%	60.6%	-1.8%	12.0%
1993	-24.6%	-24.6%	3.6%	-5.2%	-47.4%	-23.3%	-18.0%
1994	16.0%	21.7%	5.1%	4.2%	106.4%	13.8%	15.9%
1995	-2.0%	9.5%	2.9%	-31.4%	-106.1%	0.1%	0.6%
1996	1.8%	-15.8%	-16.1%	41.9%	-6.9%	-14.7%	-5.7%
1997	-1.1%	-2.1%	-3.8%	-24.7%	-1.6%	17.4%	-2.9%
1998	-0.1%	7.8%	-12.1%	-3.1%	-3.9%	-15.4%	-0.5%
1999	-0.2%	-4.3%	30.3%	-25.6%	4.0%	-0.1%	3.0%

Source: Global Adspend Trends, 2001.

In the international marketplace, the threat of growing competition from foreign multinational corporations, knowledge and identification of culturally related differences in consumer behaviour are of critical concern for marketers. Culture is the broadest environmental dimension affecting consumer behaviour because norms, beliefs and customs learned from society lead to patterns of behaviour (Assael, 1995). McCracken (1988) described the modern consumption society in the "The Making of Modern Consumption" which also pointed out the importance of culture in understanding consumer behaviour. During The Industrial Revolution, England was gradually transformed from a largely agrarian society into a more urban society. With the rapidly developing ability of industry towards mass production of reasonable quality at low prices, people developed new values, performed different types of work, and developed new lifestyles. These cultural changes, combined with an increased desire for material goods, were stimulated partly by new marketing strategies such as advertising (Costa, 1991; McCracken, 1988). Consumers, therefore, grow up in a particular culture and become committed to that culture's value systems, attitudes, beliefs, and, thus, perception processes are all culturally influenced.

Cultural values influence, and are influenced by, consumer advertising. Advertising, more than any other institution may alter consumer values (Belk and Pollay, 1985a). The growth of the global environment and the debate over the standardisation or specification of advertising messages in different countries around the world has added great momentum to research in cultural values (Mueller, 1987 and 1992). Therefore, understanding cultural differences is often considered a prerequisite for successful international advertising (Keegan, 1989). The key concepts considered in this research are whether important similarities and/or differences in cultural values are reflected in advertising in the UK and China; how cultural differences influence advertising appeals in the two nations' advertising contents and how young adults respond to these different advertising appeals; and what the opinions and attitudes are of young adults with regard to the advertising. This sort of cross-cultural study is particularly important because cultural differences often function as boundaries in international advertising (Cole and Bruner, 1971).

For more than 20 years, researchers in advertising have shown great interest in the impact of culture on advertising content (Albers-Miller, 1996). Previous cross-cultural studies have been carried out on cultural values and advertising appeals reflected in advertising in some developing countries such as the Philippines, India, and China, and most of those studies tended to be concentrated upon comparisons with the US. It is still unclear what dominant cultural values are manifestly different between UK and Chinese magazine advertisements, and how the two nations' young adults respond to the different advertising appeals. This research is aimed to partly bridge this gap.

Furthermore, the remarkably rapid growth of the Chinese economy combined with their Single-Child Policy has produced a significant "modern Chinese consumer" who is potentially the most promising consumer segment in China (Ariga *et al.*, 1997). In particular, the UK withdrawal from the Hong Kong

territory appears to have raised a new environment in China. Are these Chinese new-generations' attitudes towards advertising similar and/or different to UK young adults? Thus, this research will also examine the two nations' youth attitudes towards advertising in general.

The UK and China have been chosen to provide maximum cultural contrast. This study, therefore, is an attempt to compare how cultural differences manifest themselves in magazine advertising in the two distinct countries' youth markets. A number of key concepts have emerged from reviewing the literature on cross-cultural advertising, and the growth of a new generation in China is particularly relevant to this research. The three concepts of cultural values, advertising appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general were central to this research and were examined via a set of formal hypothesis tests.

It is expected that the research findings will help international advertisers and marketers to improve their decisions on the promotional strategies to adopt in overseas markets, and will shed some light onto the relative effectiveness of advertising appeals in international advertising messages. The study is also expected to enhance international academics and practitioners' knowledge with respect to the Chinese new-generation market as well as the UK young adult market.

1.2 The Research Objectives

The research was designed to achieve the following aims:

- 1) To study Chinese and UK magazine advertisement content in order to advise advertisers and marketers about the implications of the

promotional strategies they may adopt in international advertising environments.

- 2) To compare how cultural differences are reflected in advertising messages within consumer advertising in the UK and Chinese cultures in order to provide further insight into the relative effectiveness of advertising appeals in international advertising messages.
- 3) To characterise the similarities and/or differences of perceptions of attitudes towards advertising in general between the two nations' young adults in order to enhance existing knowledge of academics and practitioners with respect to the Chinese new-generation market, as well as UK young adult market.

In order to achieve the general aims above, the following more specific research objectives were advanced.

1. To determine the dominant cultural values that are manifest in Chinese magazine advertisements.
2. To determine the dominant cultural values that are manifest in UK magazine advertisements.
3. To examine whether there are important similarities and/or differences in cultural values reflected in UK and Chinese magazine advertisements.
4. To identify how different cultural values influence advertising messages in terms of emotional appeals in consumer advertising between the UK and Chinese cultures

5. To analyse the perceptions of underlying beliefs that account for similarities and/or differences in attitudes towards advertising in general between the UK and Chinese young adults.

1.3 The Perceived Power of Magazine Advertisements

Advertising may make use of a wide variety of media. It was decided that the above objectives would be best investigated and achieved by a focus on magazine advertisements. The reasons for this are explained below.

There is an enormous body of research on the effectiveness of advertising strongly devoted to TV advertising, but magazine advertising has been playing a very important role as a promotion tool for advertisers and marketers. There are six reasons why magazine advertising has been chosen in this study.

1. *A strong relationship of trust grows up between the reader and his or her chosen magazines.* According to the Periodical Publishers Association's (PPA) report in 1996, based on research conducted by Guy Consterdine, the reader relationship with magazines creates a powerful trust, and a feeling of ownership as an informed friend.
2. *Magazines are read repeatedly.* The average magazine page is looked at about twice by each reader. Magazines are often picked up more than once during a day and on more than one day.
3. *Magazines strengthen brand identification.* Advertising is seen as an integral part of magazines. Relevant advertising is valued by readers, and is consumed with interest. Thus, in the sympathetic context of the

right magazine, the strong positive brand values of the magazine can transfer to the advertisements.

4. *Evidence shows those magazines sell/promote products and creates awareness.* In the report of IPC's (International Publishing Co-operating Media Ltd.) innovative Ad Track, research conducted by Millward Brown shows that magazine advertising generates marked increases in advertising awareness, and also creates awareness at a very similar level to television. Ad Track also proves that magazines can generate movement in willingness to consider buying the advertised brands. Moreover, Ad Track showed that at its first exposure a magazine advertisement typically performs about 40 per cent better than a TV commercial in terms of creating awareness of the advertising.
5. More importantly, *magazine advertising can add extra information or messages compared with other media.* It can focus-in on product-orientated messages, and makes the product more accessible in order to create a more positive feeling towards the product itself.
6. In addition, when considering time and research budget constraints, magazine advertising is deemed to be a convenient tool for a research focus compared with TV commercials.

1.4 The Definition of Target Population

The target population in this study was the youth market. By definition, youth market means people who are under 25 years of age, and are often interested in goods and services that are different, unusual, or suggest values other than those held by older people (Rosenberg, 1995).

China has adopted a Single-Child Policy since 1979. The new-generation Chinese are now in their twenties and they have great influence on the spending of their families' income as well as a substantial amount of personal wealth to spend on their own needs and wants (McNeal and Yeh, 1997). Furthermore, Ariga *et al.* (1997) identified that potentially the most promising consumer segment in China is the youth generation (the China's Generation III). In their study of the Chinese market, they divided ages into three generations: "Generation I (45-59 years old)", "Generation II (30-40 years old)" and "Generation III (18-29 years old)". They found that the typical characteristics of Generation III in China were that they had a good educational background and had opportunity to work for a foreign affiliated firm. For example, blessed with a good aspect of the market economy system that promises a brighter future for people who earn enough money. Additionally, Ariga *et al.* (1997) also analysed the new-generation Chinese lifestyle principles in order to compare with the other two groups. They revealed that these younger people had strong self-actualisation needs, and a stronger desire to seek material gain.

Recently, Thiesse and Gowers (1996) analysed young adults in six Asian countries. The research indicated, in most Asian countries, that it was common for young adults between 20 and 25 years to complete their final education, and it was the mid-twenties that marked their transition into work and responsibilities. They, therefore, examined the two age groups, 20 – 25 years (young sector) and 26 – 35 years (older sector) from the middle socio-economic sectors in order to compare the differences. Overall, they characterised these young adults, in common with other markets worldwide, as highly driven achievement-oriented individuals. This individualism, in the fast-growing Asian markets, is manifested in an eager embrace of new freedoms and western values. These young adults show strong drive and ambition, and tend to be free-spending and self-indulgent. They have a carefree attitude, a short-term focus, a marked self-centredness, and – in most markets – a strong materialism.

In order to identify the similarities and/or differences in youth groups across cultures, this research defined youth markets as those young people who are between 18 and 24 years old in the UK and China. It is assumed that these young adults have similar characteristics as those mentioned above.

1.5 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters.

Chapter 1 presents a brief overview of this research, including the objectives, the perceived power of magazine advertisements, definition of target population and the overall layout of this thesis.

Chapter 2 describes the theoretical foundations for the research to date. It presents a review of the concept of culture, and its relationship with consumer behaviour and advertising. Advertising in the UK and China are briefly described. The conceptual framework for this research is developed as a result of the literature review. Each of the key concepts is described in the contexts of advertising in the UK and Chinese cultures. Advertising effectiveness is also briefly discussed and its role in this research is clarified.

Chapter 3 discusses the background and research hypotheses with regard to the conditions of cultural values, advertising appeals, and attitudes towards advertising in general. The development of instruments for each key concept is discussed. The development of the theoretical foundation of hypothesis testing is also outlined.

Chapter 4 presents the theoretical foundations and cross-cultural issues with reference to the methodology employed in this research. The methodology is divided into two chapters (4 and 5). Chapter 4 begins with describing the

process of the research design and the procedure adopted for the questionnaire survey in this study, including the assessment of reliability and validity for the scale measurement, followed by a discussion of cross-cultural equivalence concerns.

Chapter 5 presents the procedure adopted for advertising content analysis. The importance of advertising content analysis and its methodology for this research are discussed. The relevance of content analysis for cultural values is discussed.

Chapter 6 presents the data analyses and findings in detail. The exposure of general information about advertising in the UK and China is investigated. The theoretical implications of the findings are discussed for each key concept. The research hypotheses are tested, based on advertising content analysis and the questionnaire survey.

Chapter 7 provides the conclusions and recommendations for the research study. It highlights the value of the research findings, contributions, limitations, and directions for further research.

CHAPTER 2 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the theoretical foundations for the present research. It reviews previous literature on culture, advertising, marketing communications and consumer behaviour including studies of culture values, advertising appeals, and consumer attitudes towards advertising in general. On the basis of the literature review, a conceptual framework for the present research was developed. This chapter involves the key concepts of cultural values, advertising appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general in the contexts of advertising in the UK and Chinese cultures. Each of the key concepts is described with reference made to the relevant literature in formalising the research agenda.

2.2 Culture

People are Tyrannized by Their Culture.

- Edward T. Hall, anthropologist

Doing business across international boundaries inevitably leads to interaction with people, and their organisations are nurtured in different cultural environments. Jain (1995) points out that more than any other function of a business, marketing is perhaps the most susceptible to cultural error. This is because marketing, by definition, requires a connection with the people of the country concerned. Culture means many things to many people because its concept encompasses significant differences in values, attitudes, beliefs, concepts, rituals, motivation, expectations, memories, perception, morality,

truth, superstition, and so on. All these cultural characteristics are important to one group of people, but may mean little to the other (Tayeb, 1988). Cultural influences have pervasive effects on consumer behaviour. For example, food preferences are strongly linked with culture; most Chinese prefer drinking tea without adding sugar and milk, whereas most British consumers would take sugar and milk with their tea. These differences in tastes are explained by cultural influences rather than by some random differences in taste between individuals – the behaviours are shared by people from a particular cultural background (Blythe, 1997). Consequently, it is through increasing multinational enterprise that practitioners have become extremely aware of the cross-cultural differences they have to consider when making marketing mix decisions (Aulakh and Kotabe, 1993; Clark, 1990; Graham, 1988; Jain, 1989; Kreutzer, 1988; Martenson, 1987; Roth, 1995).

The significance of consumer goods goes beyond their utilitarian characteristics and commercial values in this day and age. These significant differences are largely in their ability to carry and communicate cultural meaning (Douglas and Isherwood, 1978; Shahlins, 1976). As suggested by McCracken (1991), “We may see consumer goods as the vehicles of cultural meaning. Consumers themselves as more or less sophisticated choosers and users of these cultural meanings.” Consumer behaviour stems from interaction within a socio-cultural phenomenon; and all individual identities are derived from interaction within a socio-cultural environment (Costa, 1991; Hofstede, 1994; McCracken, 1988). For example, England's Industrial Revolution led to dramatic cultural changes during the transformation of society in 18th century England. Although other variables may be involved, perhaps culture, primarily, is the broadest and deepest component of social behaviour (Kotler, 1997). Cultural influences, therefore, as the environmental characteristic, have broad effects on consumer behaviour. As consumption is a completely cultural phenomenon, many aspects of a culture impact differently on the satisfaction of consumer needs and wants through the use of goods and services. As a result, culture, consumer behaviour and

consumption have become increasingly interdependent (Costa and Bamossy, 1995; McCracken, 1988; Roth, 1995).

Advertising, which is a large part of marketing communications, is an especially important instrument of cultural meaning transfer (McCracken, 1986). Since advertising is mainly based on language and images, it is a privileged method of cultural borrowing and mirrors changing social behaviour (Usunier, 1996). Scholarly interest in the need for relating advertising to culture was evoked as early as three decades ago by the issue of standardisation or specification of international advertising messages. In fact, because of differing cultures, worldwide consumer homogeneity does not exist. Thus, advertising theorists supporting the specialisation of advertising messages suggest that advertising is one of the most difficult marketing elements to standardise, sometimes because of the legal restrictions that require changes in copy or make certain media unavailable, but are more often because of cultural and language differences.

In order to better understand how culture influences advertising and consumer behaviour, one must first identify the meaning of culture as exactly as possible and then explore the relationships among culture, advertising and consumer. In Section 2.2, the main streams of the concept and definitions of culture are reviewed. In the Section 2.3, models of marketing communications and consumer behaviour are discussed. In Section 2.4, the studies of relationships between culture, advertising and consumer behaviour are reviewed. In Section 2.5 and 2.6, the studies of advertising history in both countries are briefly introduced. In Section 2.7, a research framework for the present research is introduced. In Section 2.8, each of the key concepts of cultures in relation to advertising in the research framework (i.e., cultural values, advertising appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general) is described in detail. In Section 2.9, advertising effectiveness is discussed briefly. Finally, Section 2.10 presents a summary.

2.2.1 The Concept of Culture

Culture is a tremendously complex concept with numerous definitions which have been presented differently by anthropologists, sociologists, social psychologists, and cross-cultural psychologists.

Culture commonly means “civilisation” or “refinement of the mind” (education, art, and literature). This is “culture in the narrow sense” (Hofstede, 1994). In their well-known monograph on “Culture”, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) have analysed nearly three hundred “definitions” and the number has certainly increased considerably since that time. Their study cited most of these definitions from anthropologists who usually define cultural meanings as created by people in a group through their social interactions. An early definition of culture with its anthropological meaning was given by Tylor in 1871 in which culture was described as a complex which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, laws, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. Another early definition by Murdock (1945) included 73 items as cultural universals which emphasised all people as having similar basic needs, regardless of race or religion, and so on. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) concluded that social scientists generally agree on the concept of culture in the following way:

“Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional ideas and especially their attached values”.

Sociologists have divided culture into “material and non-material traits” (Ogburn and Nimkoff, 1940, p.63; Winston, 1933, p.25; Young, 1934, p.592). Kluckhohn (1951, p.86) further submits that “culture designates those aspects of the total human environment, tangible and intangible, which have been

created by men". Recently Wells, Burnett and Moriarty (1998) define culture as a complex of tangible items (art, literature, buildings, furniture, clothing, and music) called material culture, along with intangible concepts (knowledge, laws, morals, and customs) that together define a group of people or a way of life.

Although culture derives from many interactions within societies, it tends to focus on cognitive constructs such as values, norms, perceptions, and so on (Kautsky, 1971; Munroe and Munroe, 1977). From the view of psychology, Triandis (1972) further expands upon Herskovitz's (1948) conceptualisation of culture and defines culture as a "Subjective Culture" as "a cultural group's characteristic way of perceiving the man-made part of its environment." This subjective culture includes associations, attitudes, beliefs, concepts, evaluations, expectations, memories, opinions, perceptions, role perceptions, stereotypes, and values.

Although there is still no general consensus on the exact meaning of "culture", there is broad agreement that culture is learned, shared and passed on from one generation to the next and is reinforced through social institutions (Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952). Clark (1990) and Hall (1976 and 1983) also state, culture has a profound impact on the way consumers perceive and behave. Culture, therefore, has a wide divergence of definitions, each reflecting a different paradigm from various disciplines (e.g. psychology, sociology, anthropology, and so on). Nevertheless, "culture" is a social construction aimed at describing a complex set of phenomena, and its meaning is bound to vary with the users' purpose (Jahoda, 1993). To operationalise culture for the purposes of investigating its effect on advertising and consumer behaviour, Hofstede's (1980) definition has been adopted:

"The values, attitudes, beliefs, artifacts and other meaningful symbols represented in the pattern of life adopted by people that help them interpret, evaluate, and communicate as members of a society".

The definition possesses the major operational measures of culture: values, attitudes and other meaningful symbols (such as language) which are related to the three key issues (cultural values, advertising appeals, attitudes towards advertising in general) considered in this study. These measures of culture are discussed in further detail in the next sections.

2.2.2 Elements of Culture

It is almost impossible to measure culture. Cultural theorists have developed some basic sources of cultural background at the level of the individual that allow us to describe, evaluate, and differentiate culture. As mentioned in Section 2.2, culture does not include instincts or idiosyncratic behaviour occurring as a one-time solution to a unique problem. It is much more a process than a distinctive whole, which would be entirely identifiable by the sum of its elements. Tylor (1913) describes culture as a complex and interrelated set of elements, comprising knowledge, beliefs and values, arts, law, manners and morals, and all other kinds of skills and habits acquired by a human being as a member of a particular society. Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2001) divide culture into abstract and material elements, where abstract elements include values, attitudes, ideas, personality types, and summary constructs, such as religion, politics, and symbol (language, aesthetic styles, and story themes). Material elements include artifacts, technology, and infrastructure. According to Goodenough's (1971) concept of "operational culture", it assumes that the individual can choose the culture in which to interact at any given moment or in any given situation. Goodenough's "operational culture" includes language(s), nationality, education (general), profession (specialised education), group (ethnicity), religion, family, sex, social class and corporate or organisational culture. Goodenough further identifies that culture and its values are transmitted from one generation to another and individuals learn values and culture through socialisation and

acculturation. Therefore, when some of these elements change within a society, so then does the culture change.

Many factors affect how we, as individuals and as societies, live, buy, and consume. This includes culture, ethnicity, and social class, and so on. Perhaps culture is the most influential in every aspect of marketing when consumers make buying decisions (Jain, 1989). Since culture has a profound impact on the way consumers perceive themselves, the products they buy and use, their purchasing processes, and the organisations from which they purchase, it is important for marketers and advertisers to give more attention to understanding the role of culture in an international environment.

2.2.3 Language

Although national culture is a main source of culture according to the “operational culture” perspective (Goodenough, 1971), language has a prominent role as an essential element of culture. It is the basic input of any culture-based communication process and is the concept of meaning, because everyday life is mostly a matter of interaction through communication in a culturally homogeneous community (Usunier, 1996). This is especially so when consideration is given to the function of language in international advertising because an advertisement typically consists of both language and image to create the message to promote the product and persuade consumers to buy the good or service. It is often characterised by an unshakeable conviction that language is a secret key for resolving every imaginable problem in international marketing communications. Another problem associated with language is the meaning of values in culture. Values do not translate easily because words expressing values have abstract meaning. These words must be seen as labels of values. The problem occurs when a word may serve as a label of a value in one culture but be the label of

a different value in another culture. This explains why it is difficult and important to translate advertising copy into accurate languages in a particular country's market within their various cultural backgrounds.

In summary, advertising is often deeply rooted in the local culture and, therefore, cannot often be transferred across national boundaries; advertisements transfer cultural meaning into products (McCracken, 1986). However, culture can change over a period of time, although such changes tend to be slow, since culture is deeply built into people's behaviour. Many factors are likely to produce cultural changes within a given society, such as new technology, population shifts, changing values, and so on. For example, women are increasingly going out to work, these career women do not wait for marriage and a man to buy them luxury items (Canedy, 1998). While culture has a potent influence on all consumer behaviour, marketers also segment overall societies into smaller subgroups, based on subcultures that consist of people who are similar in terms of their nationality, religion, age, race, geographic region, gender, occupation, social class, and customs. For example, many consumers in New England might constitute a subculture because they demonstrate tradition "Yankee values" of stubborn individualism (Assael, 1995). These subcultures provide important marketing opportunities for astute marketing strategies.

The target groups were young adults (students) in this study. They might be associated with different socio-demographic and socio-economic in the two countries (UK and China). However, this was likely to be of less importance because universities select on ability, not from family background. Moreover, students are attempting to begin a life independent of their parental family and, therefore, likely to be culturally homogeneous.

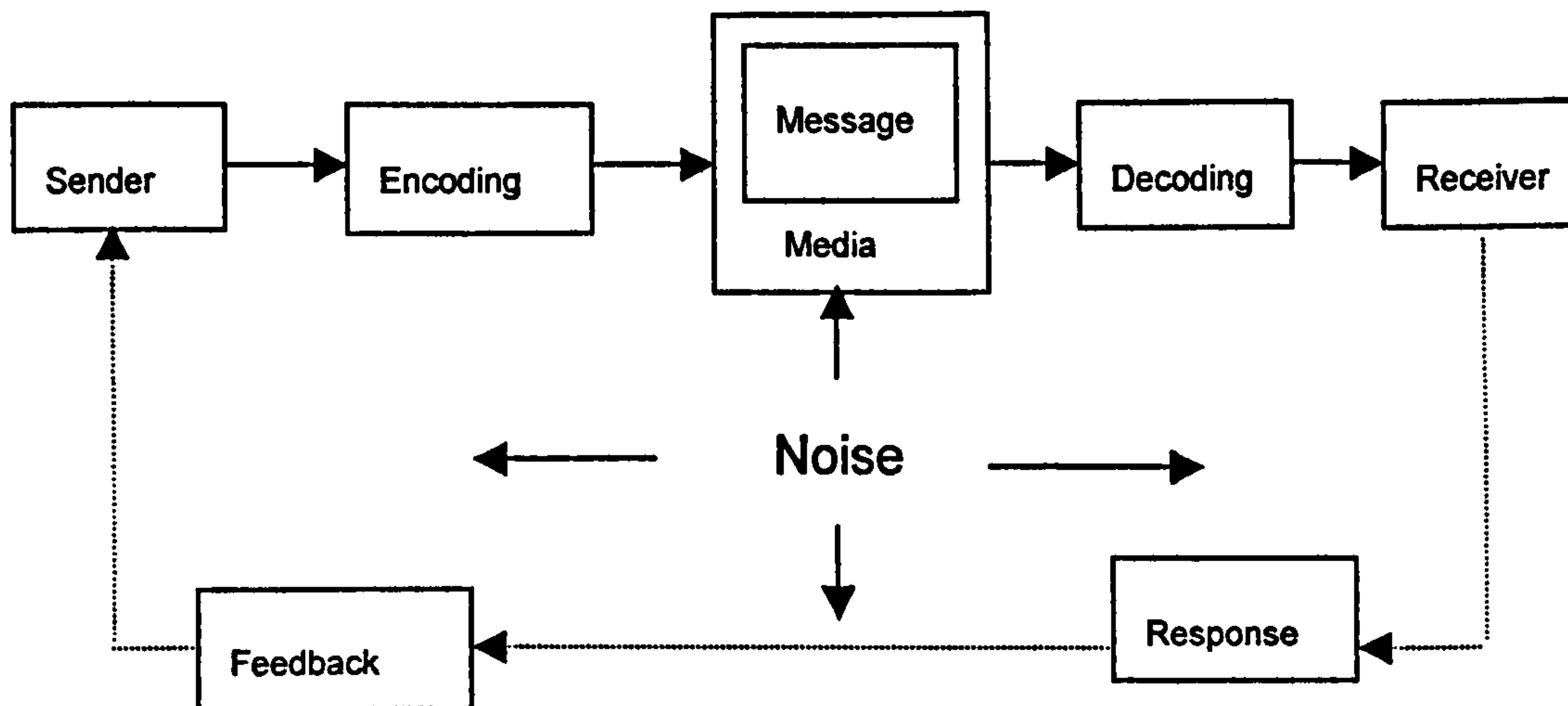
Advertising is seen as the most culture-bound element in the marketing mix (see more detail in later sections). With the growth of international advertising activities, the impact of advertising on consumer behaviour across cultures

has received particular attention in recent literature. In order to identify cultural similarities and/or differences in consumer behaviour related to advertising, the following sections, therefore, consider appropriate theories of marketing communications, consumer behaviour, advertising, and consumer attitudes for the application to cross-cultural environments.

2.3 Models of Marketing Communications and Consumer Behaviour

The primary goal of marketing communications is to influence consumers buying behaviour. Schramm's (1960) concept of the communications process provides the foundation of understanding of marketing communications. This model underscores many of the factors in effective communication. The sender (advertiser and marketers) needs to understand the motivation of their audiences (thought and feeling processes) and ascertain the most effective communication media (carrier of marketing communications, e.g. advertising) in order to structure messages that the audience will interpret correctly through the decoding process. Such a communication process also establishes effective feedback channels in order to find out the receivers' responses to these messages. The communication process involves four key components: sender, message, media, and receiver, these are shown in Figure 2.1. However, there is much noise, which may prevent the decoding of a message by the receiver in the way intended by the sender during the communication process. Noise might include similar messages by other competitors (senders), or that the message does not fit in with receivers' existing attitudes, beliefs and opinions.

Figure 2.1 A Model of the Communication Process



Source: adapted from Yeshin, 2000, based on Schramm, 1960.

As discussed above, the aim of marketing communications is to persuade the consumer to buy the product or service offered. It is, therefore, essential to that advertisers and marketers understand the process of consumer buying behaviour by which the consumer reaches the decision to buy. A very simplified model of the process of consumer buying behaviour is shown in Figure 2.2. This model contains a number of cultural, social, personal and psychological factors influencing purchasing decisions. Given the increasing multifaceted international/global environments, several complex models of buyer behaviour have been reported in the literature of marketing since the mid-1960s. The three most commonly used comprehensive models (the contemporary models of consumer behaviour) are those put forward by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995), Howard and Sheth (1969) and Nicosia (1966). These models attempt to take both personal and environmental variables into account in order to explain the buying behaviour process. The most widely used model for applying to the consumer purchase decision is that developed by the Howard and Sheth (1969). The framework of the Howard-Sheth model comprises inputs, determinants, perceptual reaction, processing determinants, inhibitors and outputs. This model is a learning model, in which consumers pass through a cognitive, affective and behavioural stage, these may be used

to explain the brand choice of an individual faced with several choice alternatives. The Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model is a psychological-interaction model that focuses on the various steps of the decision process more explicitly than do the other two models selected. The Nicosia model might be characterised as a communications model that begins with a firm's communication to the consumer via advertising and culminates with consumer feedback to the firm. Contemporary models of consumer behaviour incorporate perspectives from the sciences (e.g. psychology and sociology). These models concentrate on the decision process consumers engage in regarding purchase, use and disposal of products. They typically consider the mental activity that consumers engage in before, during and after the purchase is made. These models are strongly founded on scientific knowledge and tend to be expressed in flow-chart form. These comprehensive models have tended to be employed most often in the study of consumer behaviour.

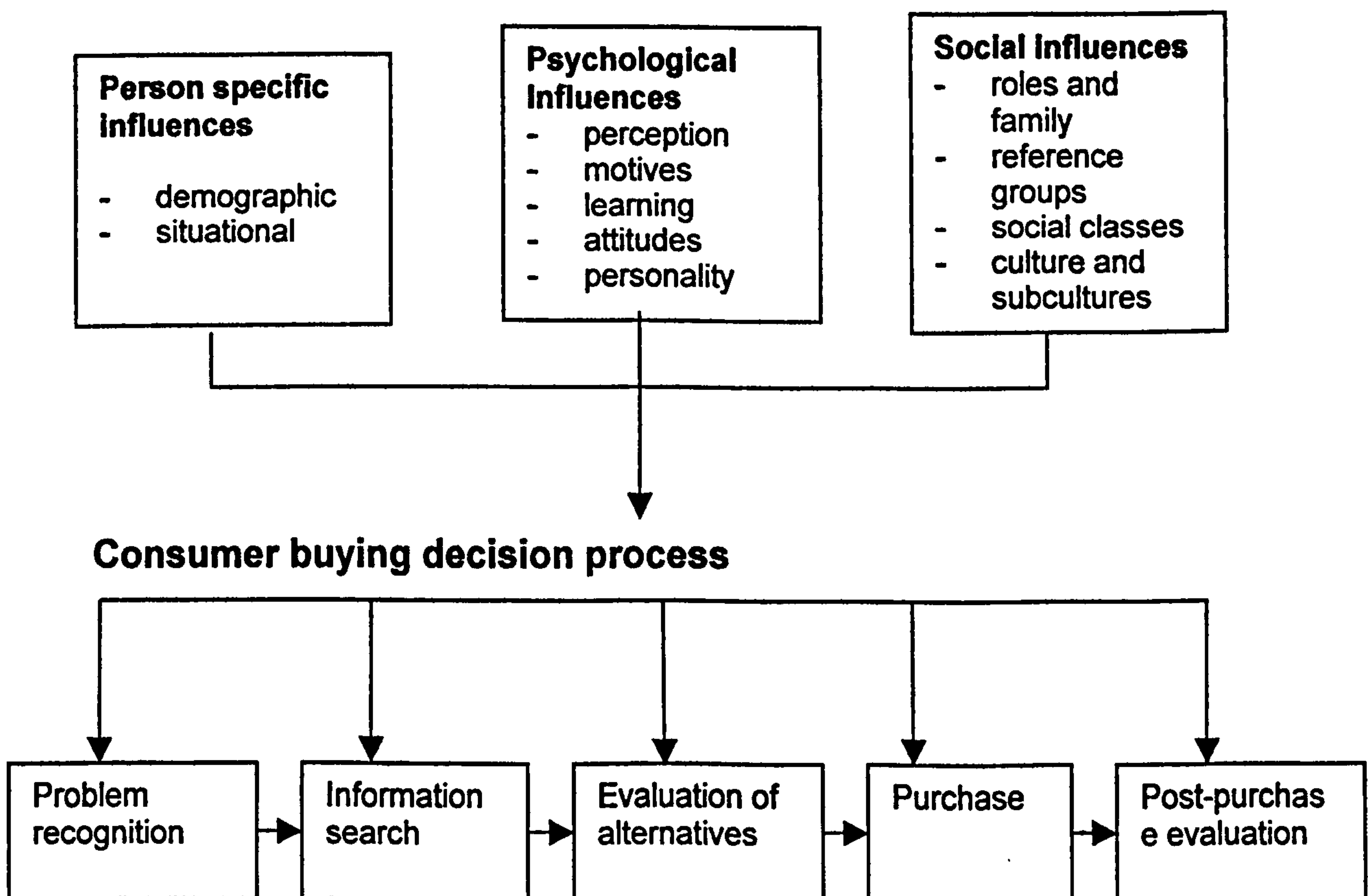
From a cognitive perspective, also by viewing consumer behaviour at an individual level, cognitive psychology's very pre-eminence is now a barrier to intellectual development in the field of consumer behaviour research (Foxall, 1992). Consumer behaviour is widely understood as a problem-solving and decision-making sequence process, the outcome of which is determined by the buyer's goal-directed processing of information. Foxall (1992) states that cognitive consumer research tends to decontextualise consumer behaviour by minimizing the effects of the settings in which purchase and consumption occur. The cognitive perspective suggests that if the practitioner understands these thought processes then one is more likely to be able to develop communication activities that will effectively influence the consumer to buy a particular brand.

Thus, the cognitive perspective model of purchase and consumption explores critically the form and content of an account of consumer choice founded on the principles held by behaviour analysts, for example, the contingent

relationship among the behaviour in question, its antecedents and its consequences. The cognitive perspective model of purchase and consumption is based on a critical reappraisal of behaviour analysis, a psychological paradigm which is antithetical at almost all points to cognitivism. Although the consumer buying process accounts for environmental stimuli, the process is now substantiated, developing the model further, with its unique comprehension of the nature of managerial marketing.

Figure 2.2 Consumer Buying Process

Possible influences on the decision process



Source: adapted from Yeshin, 2000.

Several models of consumer behaviour have been discussed briefly. This research intended to explain the possible variables which might affect consumer buying behaviour (e.g. personal attitudes and cultural environments, and so on), rather than test any of the consumer behaviour models. The next

sections discuss the important relationships between culture, advertising and consumer behaviour in detail.

2.4 The Relationships between Culture, Advertising and Consumer Behaviour

It may be suggested that the marketing communications process is becoming more complex and harder to evaluate. For as long as advertising has existed, so has the debate about how to assess its efficacy. Although there are many factors (e.g. regulations, media types, and so on) that affect advertising decision making, this research focuses on cultural influences because advertising is the most culture-bound factor in the marketing management mix (Usunier, 1996). This is not to underestimate the significance of other factors, however, understanding cultural differences is often considered a prerequisite for successful international advertising communications (Keegan, 1989). This is because cultural values influence and is influenced by advertising (Belk and Pllay, 1985a; Randazzo, 1993). Consumers respond to advertising appeals in a manner that is congruent to their cultural values and norms. The following sections, therefore, examine and discuss the relationships between culture, advertising and consumer behaviour.

2.4.1 Advertising as a Cultural Communication Influence on Consumer Behaviour

Advertising, by definition, is paid non-personal communication from an identified sponsor using mass media to persuade or influence an audience (Wells *et al.*, 1998). In general, advertising is a form of mass communication, which is transmitted through the mass media of TV, radio, cinema, press,

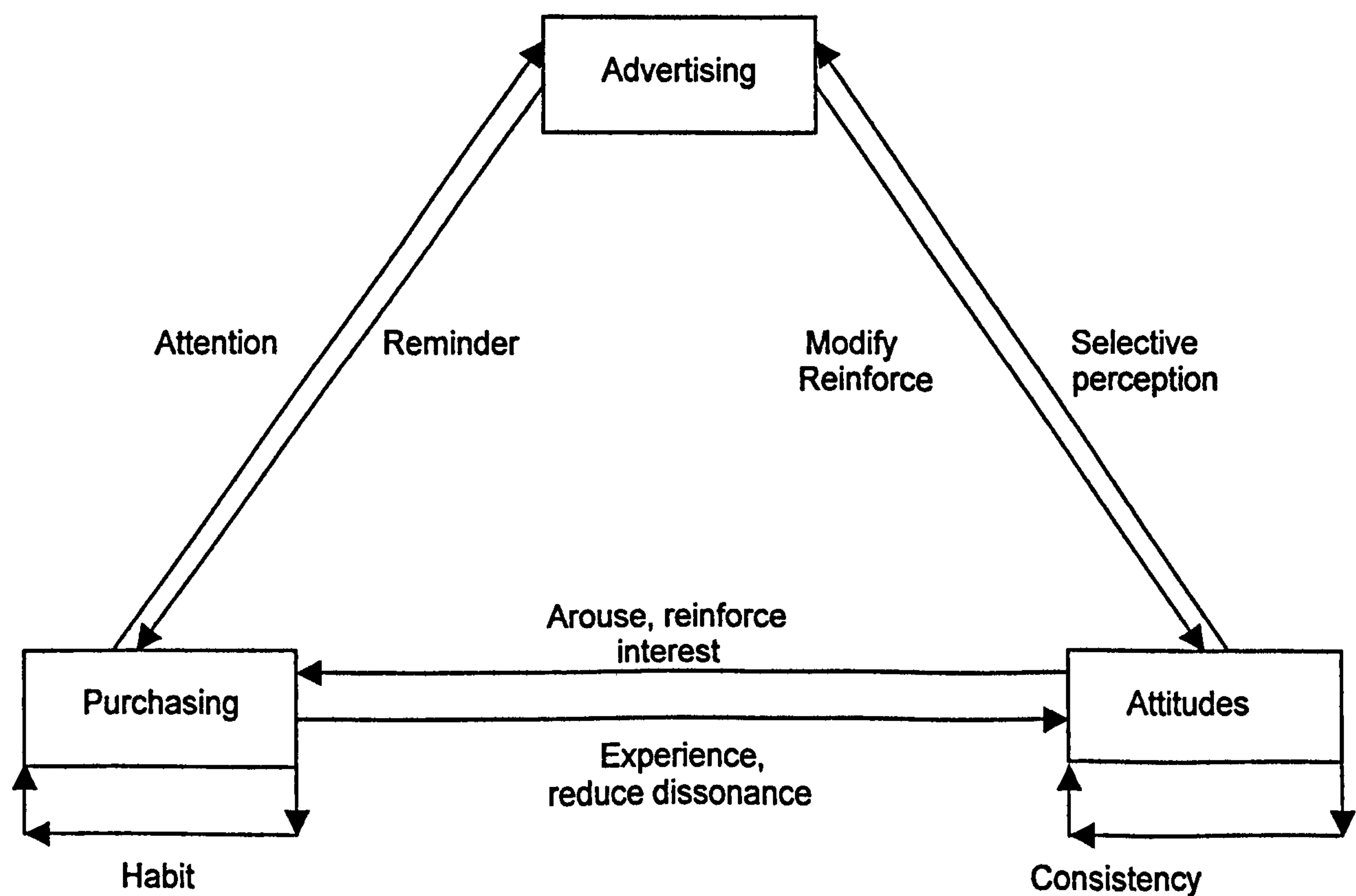
posters, direct mail and the Internet. Many firms have faith in the effectiveness of advertising, because it is recognised as performing a variety of critical communications functions, such as informing, persuading, reminding, adding value and assisting other company efforts (Shimp, 2000).

Marketing is a process involving communication and exchange that seeks to satisfy consumer needs and wants through goods and services. Consumers buy meanings as well as objects, and marketers communicate meanings through their products and advertisements. Advertising, therefore, transmits different types of market information to match buyers and sellers in the marketplace. In "Culture and Consumption", McCracken (1986) points out that advertising works as a potential method of meaning transfer by bringing consumer goods and representation of the culturally constituted world together within the frame of a particular advertisement. Advertising, therefore, is an especially important instrument of cultural meaning transfer. As communicating with people of diverse nations has become increasingly necessary in today's world, the process of communication has become more important as has the need to improve that communication. Kayak and Mitchell (1981) indicate that communicating the right message is difficult because cultural and national factors largely determine the ways phenomena are perceived. Culture affects people in different ways, such as tastes, preferences for colours, and attitudes towards brands, and so on but, perhaps, culture has its greatest impact on how information is received, stored, retrieved, and used to make decisions (Triandis, 1982a and 1982b).

Models of the advertising process, such as AIDA, DAGMAR and Lavidge and Steiner, are described variously as step-by-step, hierarchical, or transmissional are all, in any event, implying a rational consumer being moved by advertising through a sequence of steps to purchase of the product. However, the communications process is more complicated and circuitous. It recognises that consumers may enter the cycle at different points and that each action may feed back to influence other stages in the overall process.

Joyce (1991) presented a model of the advertising process at an ESOMAR seminar in 1967 that attempted to weld the process into a cohesive whole. His model modified in Figure 2.3, shows that the consumer holds a series of attitudes that may relate to the brand and the purchasing decision. Most of these attitudes will be affected by external factors – age, sex, the influence of family, friends and peer groups, cultural differences, and so on – and some are the direct result of the impact of an advertising message. Advertising will reinforce existing beliefs and attitudes and strengthen the perception of the brand. In some cases, the advertising message may also modify attitudes by presenting a potential solution to a problem which the consumer previously felt could not be resolved. It is, however, important to recognise that attitudes are not easy to change as most consumers adopt fairly consistent patterns which can only be changed over time.

Figure 2.3 Model of the Advertising Process



Source: adapted from Joyce, 1991.

Aaker and Myers (1987) also provide an overview of the communication process to explain how advertising affects consumer behaviour. They explain that the consumers are not just passive receivers of advertising stimuli but are actively involved in seeking out information to make decisions. The advertisements can also generate feelings in an audience. Thus, both may in turn affect a person's attitude towards the brand or object of the advertising. Finally, attitude may affect his or her behaviour. Rotzoll, Haefner and Sandage (1990) also point out that advertising is a process of cultural communication and communicates between marketplace and individuals within society. Advertising educates and informs the public in a persuasive manner about products, services, institutions, and ideas to affect changes in beliefs, attitudes, or behaviours among individuals (Sandage, 1972). Thus, advertising as cultural communication plays a significant role in the modern world. Many other studies related to culture and advertising addressed these issues (Anderson, 1984; Frith and Frith, 1989; Frith and Wesson, 1991; Marquez, 1975; Mueller, 1987; Pollay and Gallagher, 1990; Srikandath, 1991, and so on).

2.4.2 Cultural Differences Impacting on Advertising

In developing international advertising strategic plans, two major approaches may be used to assess how to advertise in foreign cultures: one is market analysis and the other is culture orientation (Wells *et al.*, 1998). The market analysis approach is based on data and observation from several countries. It focuses on the share of market of brands within a category and the size of the category. However, as discussed in the previous passages, advertising theorists point out that cultural difference is the most important element in influencing the decision to adopt advertising standardisation or specialisation. Therefore, the culture oriented approach which emphasises the cultural differences among peoples and nations will be used in this study.

Over the past decade, a number of studies have made contributions to the understanding of how cultural factors have an impact on advertising strategies. For example, the contextual level of a culture as conceptualised by Hall (1976) has been shown to have an impact on how advertising is conducted. A number of studies also concluded that high context cultures require subtler, less direct approaches to advertising (Miracle *et al.*, 1992; Mueller, 1987; Takada and Jain, 1991,). Likewise, several other studies have found that advertising appeals need to be modified depending on whether members of the target audience come from individualistic or collectivistic cultures (Han and Shavitt, 1994; Lin, 1993; Taylor *et al.*, 1997; Zhang and Gelb, 1996). It is recognised that people worldwide share certain needs in common, but it is also stressed that these needs are met differently in diverse cultures. Although the same emotions are basic to all humanity, the degree to which these emotions are expressed publicly varies from culture to culture. Cultural theorists have distinguished several dimensions of culture to make comparisons between cultures and to cluster cultures according to certain characteristics (Gannon, 1994; Hall, 1973, 1976 and 1983; Hofstede, 1980).

Edward Hall has studied dimensions of culture for some 40 years. He focused on the communication patterns found within cultures. He distinguishes cultures by means of four dimensions which are: (1) context, (2) space, (3) time, and (4) information flow (Hall, 1973 and 1976). Although the function of advertising is the same throughout the world, the expression of its message varies in different cultural settings. Hall's high-context/low-context theory provides a way to understand how different cultural orientations relate to advertising. He distinguishes cultures according to the degree of context in their communication systems. In a high-context communication or message, most of the information is either part of the context or internalised in the person and less information is made explicit as part of the message. The external environment, situation, and non-verbal behaviour are crucial for understanding communication because the verbal part (i.e. words) does not carry most of the information, such as Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, and so on.

In Hall's examination, China is a high-context culture in which people are deeply involved with others and information is widely shared. By contrast, in a low-context culture, messages are explicit and clear. The words carry mass information in communication and messages can be understood as an independent entity, such as English, Swiss, German, and so on. For example, in China, a word can have multiple meanings. One must clearly understand the preceding or following sentences in order to understand the exact meaning of a word. English words, however, have, in most cases, very clearly defined meanings that are not highly dependent on the words surrounding them.

Hall's high- to low- context cultures helps to explain the difficulties of advertising in other languages. Language is a significant part of a culture, and communication is impossible without it. In China, even though the written language is uniform, there are hundreds of local dialects. Mandarin or Putonghua (common speech) is used as the national language throughout the country. Unlike the English language which is relatively straightforward, many languages have complex or differences in meaning. Because language affects thoughts, advertisers and marketers should attempt to understand how consumers process linguistic information. Empirically, there is evidence to support the position that structural differences between Chinese and English affect mental representations which then can affect consumer memory of verbal information (Schmitt *et al.*, 1994). Advertisers and marketers, therefore, should be attentive to detail when they design advertising appeals (messages) for different cultural contexts.

2.4.3 Consumer Attitudes and Advertising

The most frequently used definition of attitude was written by Allport (1935), who defines attitudes as "learned predispositions to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way". Hughes

(1971) gives a similar definition of attitudes as an “individual’s favourable or unfavourable inclination toward an attribute of an object”. Because attitudes are obviously learned and built up through experience, much advertising attempts to modify them and a person’s attitudes towards advertising in general are affected by family, peer group, personality traits, previous information and experience (Benett and Kassarian, 1972; Fishben, 1975; Lutz, 1991; Assael, 1995; Wells *et al.*, 1998). Attitudes are, therefore, important to advertisers because they can be used to predict behaviour and influence how consumers evaluate and choose advertising, products and purchase intention.

Attitudes may be defined as having cognitive-affective-conative (or thinking-feeling-action) dimensions, which in more modern terms, may be described as the realms of thought, emotions and motives, or knowing, feeling and acting (Assael, 1995; Foxall and Goldsmith, 1994). As cognitive responses are formed based on consumers’ prior beliefs, consumers develop thoughts that support or counter the claims made in advertising or other means of communications when evaluating the acceptability of a message. While cognitive responses are the way consumers think about advertisements, affective responses reflect consumers’ feelings towards messages from positive to negative.

Advertising is seen as the most culture-bound element in the marketing management mix. Schutte and Ciarlante (1998) point out that advertising messages consist of language and other communication instruments that are themselves very deeply rooted in a given culture of a society. Even within the same language, word connotations can vary extensively from culture to culture. Hong *et al.* (1987) also reveal that the influence of cultural differences on advertising is all encompassing since advertising, as a form of social communication, is particularly reflective of culture and its norms. In fact, the ability of advertising to create favourable attitudes towards a product may often depend on consumers’ attitudes towards the advertisement itself (Engel *et al.*, 1995). Today corporations spend enormous budgets every year on

advertising to promote their products and influence consumers' purchasing decisions. In an international context, they must appreciate greater complexity in advertising, especially given that China has undergone rapid economic changes during the conduct of the present research. Cultural changes seem inevitable. International advertisers and marketers, therefore, are interested in understanding how consumers perceive their advertising and the effects of advertising on consumers.

2.5 Advertising in the UK

The history of advertising can be traced at least to 1 AD where the basic elements of advertising were the visual image and the spoken and the written word. Evidence can be found from the traders of Ephesus, Pompeii and Herculaneum who advertised their wares with painted murals and carved reliefs depicting products such as jars of wine or oil. As Advertising emerged alongside trading and ran parallel with consumer society, it is not really surprising that the industrial revolution in the late of 18th Century marked an expansion in advertising. Given the important role of advertising in marketing communications, sections 2.5 and 2.6 briefly describe the history of advertising in the UK and China.

In 1477 William Caxton printed what could be described as Britain's first advertisement for a book called *The Pyes of Salisbury* (Nevett, 1982). Britain was the world's pioneering industrial/commercial society (Fullerton, 1986). By 1800, sophisticated and vigorous marketing efforts, including advertising made Britain the world's first "consumer society" (Mckendrick *et al.*, 1982). Newspapers rapidly became a dominant advertising medium during the first half of the 19th century, a position that would remain virtually unchallenged until the emergence of television in the 20th century. The first UK television advertisement was broadcast in 1955 on the newly born ITV. The 1970's was

to become a “golden age” for British commercials attracting large audiences, and equally large advertising budgets.

From the 18th century onwards, the visual impact of printing became increasingly important with the rise of new printing techniques. Photographic imagery was used at the same time as letterpress printing by the end of 19th century. The growth of magazines in the UK during the 20th century, both general and specialist, catering for many niche markets, is itself a forerunner to the much more diverse advertising markets of the present day. Today, press is a well-segmented sector with over 6,000 consumer, trade and technical magazines, as well as national and regional newspaper titles.

There are two types of control in the marketing communications industry: statutory (the legal framework) and voluntary (or self-regulatory). The self-regulatory system of advertising control in the UK has been in existence for over thirty years (Alseron, 1992a and 1992b). The Advertising Standards Authority (ASA) was set up in 1962 to monitor and enforce the system of self-regulation governing cinema advertising and all printed advertising, such as that which appears in the press or on posters, or is used for direct marketing. Due to the sheer volume of advertising, the ASA is unable to check every advertisement before it is released but it is able to investigate any complaints brought to its attention. Radio and television have their own regulatory bodies to check advertisements before transmission to ensure they meet their respective codes for advertising. There is also a wide variety of legislation to restrict what advertisers can and cannot say about products.

During the 19th century, the volume of advertising expanded rapidly, with the number of newspaper ads almost quadrupling from 1800 to 1848 alone. Although 98% of households have a television in the UK, newspapers and magazines are the most important media used, as print media are very effective at delivering a message to the target audience (Fill, 1999). Total advertising expenditure in the UK in 1999 amounted to £15.31 billion – an

increase over the previous year of 6.4% at current prices, or 4.7% in real terms (Advertising Statistics Yearbook, 2000). In the European Union, the UK accounted for 26% of total EU advertising expenditure. Of the total amount spent on advertising, across all media, most is spent on the printed word. Print media accounted for 51% of total advertising expenditure in 1999 (Advertising Statistics Yearbook, 2000).

2.6 Advertising in China

Western countries approached China via the medium of trade during the seventeenth century, but only became fully fledged in the aftermath of the Sino-British Opium War in the mid-nineteenth century (Fairbank, 1979; Wang, 1997). Westerners not only brought in goods and capital but also introduced China to modern mass media. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, most foreign goods gained acceptance through constant advertising in modern media (Xu, 1990). The first modern newspapers in China were established by Western missionaries in the nineteenth century (Li, 1985) and were attractive to advertisers. China's first magazine was founded by an Englishman in Shanghai in 1875 (Xu, 1995). Magazines and periodicals began to flourish in Shanghai in the 1920s and 1930s. These magazines also became viable advertising vehicles (Wang, 1997). Radio was introduced to China by an American journalist in 1923. In 1927, the first government radio went on the air in Tainjin, and the first commercial radio station was set up in Shanghai (Shi, 1991). Besides entertainment and news, radio stations broadcast advertising spots as well. The medium evolved, and the 1930s became the high point of mass media development in China (Nathan, 1985). The media development during this period was concentrated in a few port cities, especially in Shanghai. As a result, China's first major encounter with Western consumer products through advertising in the 1920s and 1930s left a deep imprint on the Chinese economic and cultural life (Wang, 1997).

Given over 5,000 years cultural history in China, advertising in contemporary China dates back to the early part of the twentieth century. As early as 1923, Chinese magazines such as *Western Magazine* and *Life Weekly* carried advertising, and spot announcements could be heard on radio (Xu, 1986). During the same periods (1920s and 1930s), window displays, transit advertising, pamphlets and billboards, and advertising agencies were developed (Rice and Lu, 1988). The 1920s and 1930s witnessed China's first advertising boom (Stewart and Campbell, 1986), but its development came to a halt when the Chinese Communist Party began to institute a centrally planned economy after 1949.

Advertising was limited and media organisations were hierarchical after the Communists came to power in China in 1949, because the Chinese government, under Mao Zedong, developed a highly centralised economic, political and cultural structure. Under the leadership of Mao Zedong, the Communist Party commenced the integration of television into the mass media structure. The industry was launched as part of the Great Leap Forward with the first national broadcast in 1958 (Howkins, 1982). Indeed, Mao viewed the media as a tool to create a cultural identity and promote the importance of the Chinese class struggle (Weber, 2000). Nonetheless, advertising was not officially banned until the Cultural Revolution swept across the country, from 1966 to 1976.

Since China first introduced a "socialist market economy" and "open-door" policy in 1978, China has undergone dramatic economic development and change. The first commercial advertising resumed in China in the spring of 1979 after the "Cultural Revolution", when a Shanghai radio broadcast carried a spot announcement for a local photo studio. In 1979, the first advertisement was aired on TV. The "open-door policy" was oriented towards economic development and modernisation, China now has a contemporary advertising infrastructure with all modern media in use. On the medium side, China has seen the number of newspapers multiply from 186 in 1978 to 2,200 in 1996.

Magazine titles have jumped in the same period from 930 to more than 8,100 (Economist, Oct. 25th, 1996, p.99). These print media carry a variety of consumer advertisements. According to the latest report on international advertising expenditure from London-based Zenith Media, advertising expenditures in China rose by 53% to \$3.7 billion in 1995 and Zenith predicted further increases, to \$8.4 billion in 1998 (Advertising Age, 1998). As a result, advertising has become one of China's fastest-growing industries (Tefft, 1994).

Channels for advertising in China include television, radio, print, cinema and the outdoor medium. Print is the second most popular advertising vehicle in China, accounting for 31.3 per cent of all advertising expenditures (International Marketing Data & Statistics, 1997). It is, however, appropriate to study magazine advertising due to the importance of magazines in the Chinese society. According to Shao and Herbig's study (1995), they report that only one-third of all households have colour television sets and, in fact, most Chinese will share a television set with members of a village in some rural areas. As many Chinese do not own television sets, magazines are seen as a major source of information and entertainment (Rice and Lu, 1988). Magazines are also relatively inexpensive and are an important advertising medium in China (Yubin, 1987).

Meanwhile the number of new TV, cable and satellite stations, print media, radio stations, cinema and outdoor promotion venues has grown throughout the country, and advertisers in China are gaining access to new channels through which to reach consumers. Hong Kong has kept its status as the advertising capital of Asia and has also been ranked as the most economically free city in the world (Economist, January, 1996). Although advertising in China reflects the immaturity of the field as China is an economy in transition (Song and Wong, 1998), Hong Kong's return to China in 1997 has, therefore, provided the Chinese with more opportunity to have contact with Western culture. Some advertisements, for example, have shown an increasing use of

English words in Mainland China's mass media. Print media are improving their printing quality, adding more colour pages and spaces in order to attract more consumers and advertisers. Meanwhile, advertisers are still taking advantage of other outlets, such as billboards and store displays in the major cities.

The new "PRC Advertising Law", enacted in February 1995, lays out uniform rules on advertising through all media, and some of its provisions are extremely restrictive. In Beijing, for example, TV stations endure the most stringent censorship policies in practice. Foreign advertising in China is shaped to a certain degree by the Chinese government's advertising regulations, although PRC Advertising Law does not create a separate category specifically for foreign advertising. Normally, foreign advertising agencies choose to voluntarily submit their storyboards for TV commercials to the advertising review board of the Chinese Advertising Association (CAA). If foreign advertising has been approved by CAA, it is unlikely to be rejected by the media (Wang, 2000).

Foreign marketers find that it costs little to advertise in Mainland China because advertising in China is run by the state's overall guidance. For the very same reason, people in China have trusted advertising for a long period of time (Britt, 1996). However, in the past advertising was viewed with suspicion. Zhu Xinmin, the secretary general of the People's Daily newspaper, suggests that "People used to think that advertised goods were over-stocked products. Nowadays they are gaining reference from advertisements to guide their consumption" (Britt, 1996).

According to a report from The Grocer (1994), Chinese consumers are more interested in Western products than local products. British firms particularly believe that they can gain to access the vast Chinese market via Hong Kong. However, The Grocer reports that British firms are losing millions of pounds by failing to export their products to the Far East because of a lack of promotion

and inadaptability to local needs. With the growth of the global environment, it is crucial to understand how cultural differences affect advertising strategies.

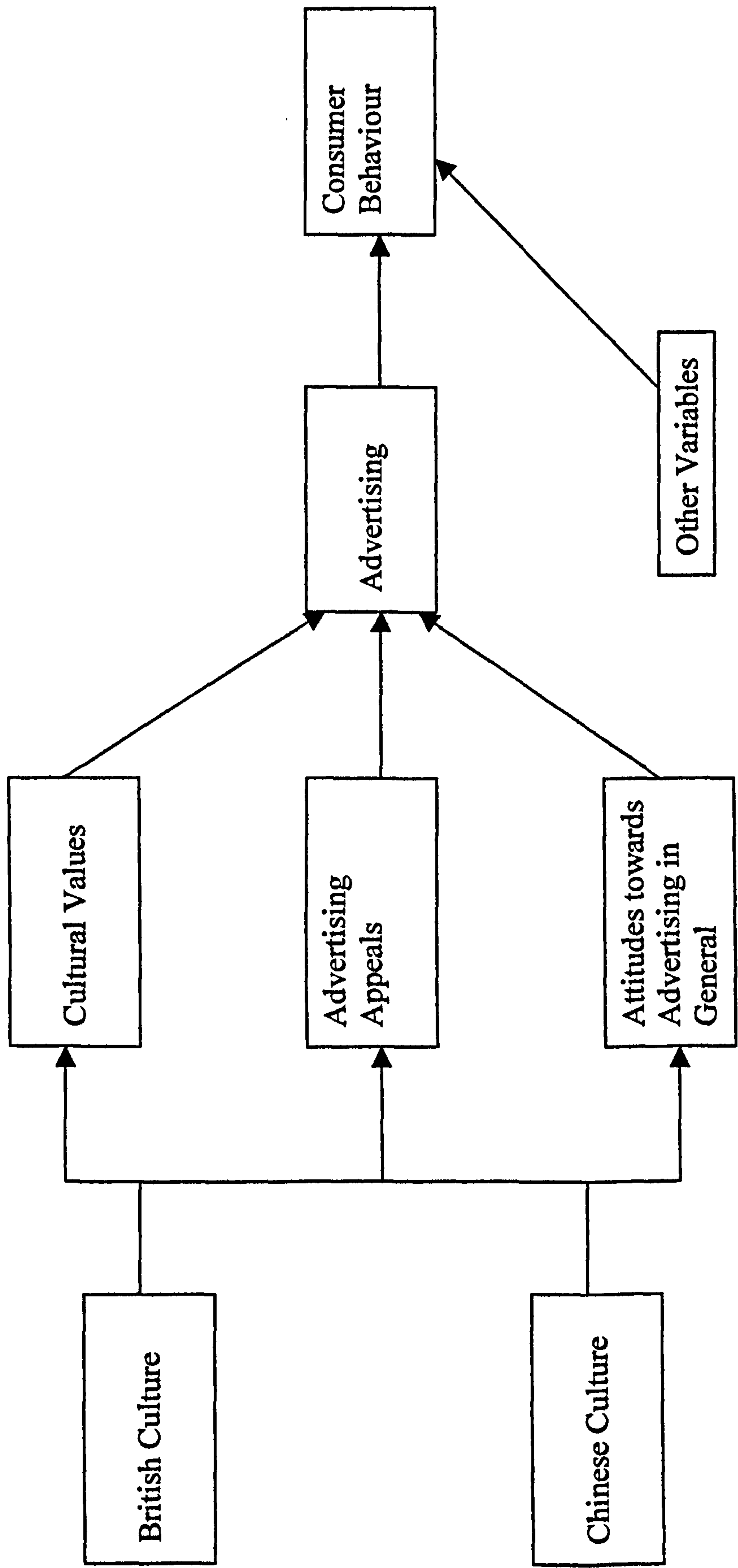
2.7 The Research Framework

To operationalise the research process, there is a need to establish a conceptual basis on which key factors and their inter-relations can be anchored and investigated with logical correspondence. In this framework, it is posited how advertisements affect consumer behaviour (other variables are also important and affect consumer behaviour, but they are not the focus of discussion in this research). Consumer behaviour is affected partly by cultural values, advertising appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general. These factors are also affected by British and Chinese cultures and the advertisement contents. In Figure 2.4, the variables described above are indicated by the boxes and the arrow lines are used to indicate the relationships between the variables.

2.8 Key Concepts Examined in the Research

Academic researchers have sought explanations for the differences in international advertising content by reference to different perspectives such as Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996; Roberts and Hart, 1997), Hall's high- and low- context typology (Biswas *et al.*, 1992; Mueller, 1992), and other specific variables, such as cultural values (Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996; Pollay, 1983), especially cultural values on the debate over standardisation or specialisation of international advertising messages (Mueller, 1987 and 1992), political dimensions and level of involvement (Rice

Figure 2.4 The Research Framework



and Lu, 1988), emotional versus rational appeals (Graham *et al.*, 1993; Javalgi, *et al.*, 1995), and information content (Madden *et al.*, 1986; Rajaratnam *et al.*, 1995; Rice and Lu, 1988, Stern *et al.*, 1981; Biswas *et al.*, 1992). Generally, past researches indicate cultural values, norms and characteristics are embedded in advertising appeals (McCracken, 1989; Mueller, 1987; Tse *et al.*, 1989). In this research, the cultural values from two different countries (UK and China) are related to the advertising appeals used in each and perceptions of attitudes towards advertising in general. Each of the key concepts (cultural values, advertising appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general) will be reviewed in the following sections.

2.8.1 Cultural Values

As previously discussed, advertising is a communication between the marketplace and individuals within societies. The function of advertising is the same throughout the world, but the expression of its message varies in different cultural settings (Hall, 1973 and 1977). In the consumer behaviour literature, cultural values, the deep-seated perceptions, attitudes and beliefs people hold about a particular way of life, become the guidance for advertisers to persuade consumers to choose a certain path that ends up at the point of sale. Recent studies on cultural value systems suggest that values are recognised as one of the most powerful forces, and influences on the shaping of consumers' motivations, lifestyles, and product choices (Clawson and Vinson, 1978; Kahle, 1985; Tse *et al.*, 1989). For example, the busy working mother of today is not as devoted to meal preparation and household cleaning as was the full-time homemaker of the past. Food marketers have changed their promotional strategies to reach these women, and we now see more advertising for fast foods, convenience foods, and restaurants. Therefore, an international advertiser's chances of success in a foreign market can be maximised if cultural values are examined (Mueller, 1992).

The Concept of Values

Hofstede (1994) distinguishes four manifestations of culture: symbols, rituals, heroes, and values. Values are the deepest and core of culture. He defines values as “broad tendencies to prefer a certain state of affairs over other”. Hofstede also further indicates that “values are among the first things children learn - not consciously, but implicitly. Development psychologists believe that by the age of 10, most children have their basic value system firmly in place, and after that age, changes are difficult to make”. Perhaps the most used definition is written by Rokeach (1973), who defines value as:

An enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence. A value system is an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end states of existence along a continuum of relative importance (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5).

Values, therefore, consist of cognitive and affective components, whilst culture refers to the total pattern of human behaviour in society. Thus, cultural values are regarded as governing ideas and guiding principles for thoughts and actions in a given society (Srikandath, 1991). Pollay (1983) also points out that advertising is a particularly persuasive proponent of a specific value system. Consequently, cultural values play a certain role in advertising appeals (messages), especially when facing different cultures. In order to design an effective advertisement, one must place special emphasis on the cultural values and impact its content is likely to cause. It is also useful to analyse advertising messages by identifying predominant cultural values in each country (UK and China) first, because consumers respond favourably to advertising messages that are congruent with their culture and reward advertisers who understand their cultures and tailor their advertising to reflect its values (Zhang and Gelb, 1996).

2.8.1.1 Comparisons of Cultural Values between the UK and China

It is generally accepted that studying advertising's reflection on values may be helpful in understanding differences between cultures and societies. There has been considerable debate of the influence of advertising in the area of cultural values since the early 1980s, whether it simply reflects societies or shapes them (Fox, 1985; Holbrook, 1987; Pollay, 1983 and 1986; Pollay and Gallagher, 1990). Researchers have found that value systems relate to consumers' purchase decisions or choices. For example, Tse, Wong and Chin (1988) found in their study of five Asian regions that consumers did indeed possess unique consumption values in choice of clothing purchases. Tse, Lee, Vertinsky and Wehrung (1988) discovered significant differences on influence of values in international marketing decisions made by executives from China, Hong Kong and Canada.

China

Rice and Lu (1988) presented the first large-scale content analysis of 472 Chinese magazine advertisements by using Resnick and Stern (1977) evaluation information criteria. They found that Chinese magazine advertisements generally contain a large amount of information cues. The most common cues were product or service availability, performance, quality, price and independent research which indicated that magazine advertising uses utilitarian in nature.

Tse, Belk and Zhou (1989) examined consumption values in different cultures through three Chinese societies (Hong Kong, Mainland China and Taiwan) for the period 1979 to 1985 by content analysing print advertisements. They suggested that the differences in cultural values were due to the societal differences in the levels of economic development, political ideology, attitudes towards consumption, and business training and philosophy. They found that advertisements in China focused on the utilitarian side, whilst advertisements

in Hong Kong tended to be more hedonistic and the Taiwanese were more materialistic and capitalistic.

In 1994, Cheng examined 572 Chinese magazine advertisements from 1982 and 1992. The results indicated that “modernity”, “technology”, and “quality” were three predominant cultural values manifest in Chinese advertising over this ten-year period. The results also indicated that while the values less frequently used in the early 1990s were utilitarian in nature and centered on product quality, the values increasing in occurrence were more symbolic and suggestive of human emotions. The group of symbolic (emotional) values reflected Western as well as Eastern culture.

Cheng (1996) also identified the predominant cultural values transmitted by content analysing of 483 Chinese television commercials for the years 1990 and 1995. He found that “modernity”, “technology” and “youth” dominated Chinese advertising in 1990, and also that the importance of “quality” in 1990 was superseded by “tradition” in 1995. The results also showed that the new Advertising Law implemented in 1995 did not reduce Western values depicted in Chinese commercials.

Furthermore, Cheng and Schweitzer (1996) analysed the content of 1,105 PRC and US television commercials for the year 1993. They identified eight cultural values that dominate either Chinese or US television advertising. While US commercials tend to use both symbolic and utilitarian values, Chinese commercials resort more often to symbolic ones. The findings indicated that current Chinese advertising was a ‘melting pot’ of Eastern and Western cultural values and a ‘double-distorted mirror’ that reflected advertising’s commercial nature with a strong tendency to fit into the idiosyncratic social reality of China.

United Kingdom

Some studies are related to the UK, which examine cultural values with other countries that share a similar language and/or culture. These similar countries were chosen to allow a greater focus on the influence of culture on advertising. For example, Weinberger and Spotts (1989) examined TV commercials in the US and UK by analysing information content. They discovered that UK advertisers used more “soft-sell” approaches. Frith and Sengupata (1991) focused on one cultural value important to international advertising. They discovered significant differences in the uses of individualism in magazine advertisements for the US, the UK and India.

Frith and Wesson (1991) compared cultural values manifest in magazine advertisements in two superficially similar countries - the US and Great Britain. They found US magazine advertisements portrayed characters in more “individualistic” stances than in Great Britain, and England’s advertisements made social class differences more evident.

Katz and Lee (1992) studied TV commercials in the US and UK by utilising a social-communication approach which combined information content analysis with a comparison of cultural values. Their findings suggested that cultural differences may be important, but product categories are more deterministic of the advertising format used.

Caillat and Mueller (1996) examined the cultural variables manifest in US and British commercial messages, including dominant values, rhetorical style, advertising appeals and occasions for product usage. They found that consumers of the two countries are currently exposed to distinct styles of commercial messages based on different cultural values (e.g. British values are affiliation, tradition/history and eccentricity). However, a review of current literature shows that there are no clear indications of what predominant cultural values are embraced in British magazine advertisements.

Overall, the cultural values manifest in Chinese advertising has changed from utilitarian (rational) to symbolic (emotional) values combined with both Western and Eastern cultural values. UK advertising, however, still strongly shows its Western values. Most studies of cultural values in advertising are based on TV commercials in different countries and tend to be conducted either between the US and another high-income country or between the US and another upper-middle income country. Few studies have examined the cultural values manifest in print advertising (Biswas *et al.*, 1992; Frith and Wesson, 1991). However, a variety of studies using the content analysis of magazine advertisements have been conducted based on different aspects of content. For example, a number of studies have focused on the gender role (Belkaoui and Belkaoui, 1976; Ford *et al.*, 1998; Kolbe and Albanese, 1996; Paff and Lakner, 1997; Sullivan and O'Connor, 1988; Zhou and Chen, 1997), age issues (Peterson, 1992 and 1994), advertising appeals (Biswas *et al.*, 1992; Cutler and Javalgi, 1993; Huhmann and Brotherton, 1997), information content (Stern *et al.*, 1981; Moon and Franke, 1996; Norton and Norton Jr., 1988; Rice and Lu, 1988), and cultural values (Cheng, 1994; Pollay, 1983). In recent years, a wealth of literature has increased our understanding of cross-cultural difference in magazine advertisements content. Most of them are conducted between the US and another high-income country (Al-Deen and Hana, 1991; Al-Olayan and Karande, 2000; Belk and Pollay, 1985; Biswas *et al.*, 1992; Cutler and Javalgi, 1992; Graham *et al.*, 1993; Javalgi *et al.*, 1994; 1995; Keown *et al.*, 1990; Mueller, 1987; Rajaratnam *et al.*, 1995; Piron and Young, 1996). It is not yet certain if there are any similarities and/or differences between predominant cultural values manifest in the UK and China's magazine advertisements.

In order to provide an understanding of influencing the use of emotional and rational cultural values in advertising, economic, advertising industry, and culture factors are discussed. The UK is a highly developed, industrialised, modern and high-income country. It suggests that greater use of rational cultural values in the UK than in China, which are a developing, major socialist

and low-income country (James and Hill, 1991; Noor Al-Deen, 1991). A comparative study of advertising in these two countries is, therefore, even more important given their different levels of economic development.

The UK has a sophisticated advertising industry and worldwide reputation for producing creative and effective advertisements. However, China's current stage of development in advertising is still immature when compared with its UK counterpart (Leiss *et al.*, 1990; Lo and Yung, 1988; Okechuku and Wang, 1988; Popllay *et al.*, 1990; Schmuck, 1987). In addition, most advertisements in China attract governmental sanctions. So, a comparative study of advertising in these two countries is more meaningful.

Cheng and Schweitzer (1996) state that China's current stage of development most resembles the US at an earlier stage of development, when advertising is much more utilitarian and product-oriented. However, evidence shows Chinese magazine advertising is less utilitarian in nature and displays more symbolic values since the 1990s. Furthermore, China is a high-context culture (Hall, 1976) where the interpretation of a message is based not only on words, but on the context in which the message takes place. Therefore, advertising to Chinese consumers may not require as much information and explicit details (Biswas *et al.*, 1992). In contrast to the high-context Chinese culture, the low-context British culture (Hofstede, 1980) relies more on direct communication. Thus, consumers seek more information from advertising. Meanwhile, a number of studies show that information content in advertising from low-context cultures tend to be higher than in those from high-context cultures (Biswas *et al.*, 1992; Lin, 1993; Mueller, 1987).

From the perspective of individualism-collectivism, one of the most basic dimensions of culture (Hofstede, 1980) because of the more collectivistic nature of the society in China (Hsu, 1981), people use other sources such as family, friends and relatives to find information about a product, thus reducing dependence on advertising as a source of information. Collectivistic cultures

should use more emotional cultural values because of the importance of group consensus and the development of personal relationships with customers (Taylor *et al.*, 1997). Collectivistic advertising, therefore, focuses on family or friends in a social setting. Conversely, the more individualistic UK culture (Hofstede, 1980) should emphasise rational cultural values due to a reliance on individual decision making, in which advertising stresses individualism and freedom.

Many studies refer to collectivism as being associated with “traditional culture” whereas individualism is a strong component of “modern culture”. Usunier (1996) states that “modern culture” is predominantly based on Western values, those held by philosophers, scientists and politicians in England, France and other European countries, during the period when they experienced industrial revolution and colonised other people, and later by the US, as the dominant political and cultural actor on the twentieth century world scene. A review of the literature shows that current Chinese advertising is a “melting pot” of Eastern and Western cultural values. It is, however, assumed that China will be more likely to use traditional values than Western advertisements, because the East is believed to be tradition-oriented. Chinese leadership has also tried to draw the line between modernisation and Westernisation with a strong preference for modernisation without Westernisation (Cheng, 1996). Nevertheless, since China reopened its doors to Western businesses in 1979, Hong Kong has been widely perceived as the gateway to China and has provided more opportunities for contact with Western culture. In fact, major cities in China such as Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, Guangdong, and so on where consumers are slightly more affluent and open to Western lifestyles have been filled with mass communications. Obtaining product information is not as difficult as in the past, especially, in major cities. It would be interesting to know whether these changes are influenced by Chinese advertising appeals, and also whether its cultural values in advertising are changing. Thus, there is a need to examine the extent to which Western cultural influences are visible in the magazine advertisements of China. For the

convenience of examining the item-wise differences between the UK and Chinese advertising, Table 2.1 presents a summary of the characteristics and predicted advertising appeals dominance in the UK and China.

Table 2.1 Characteristics and Predicted Advertising Appeals That May Be Dominant in the UK and China

Influence	U.K.	China
Economic Development	Developed (R)	Developing (E)
Advertising Industry	Mature (E)	Immature (R)
Culture		
Context	Low (R)	High (E)
Group orientation	Individualism (R)	Collectivism (E)

Note: Predictions are relative to countries, not appeal types. For example, (E) indicates that emotional appeals are expected to be more common in one country than the other, not that emotional ads will be more common than rational ads (R) in the designated country.

Source: Adapted from Jeon *et al.*, 1999.

2.8.2 Advertising Appeals

The last two decades have witnessed a growing interest in models of consumer behaviour that emphasise situational influences, such as emotions and feelings in order to understand consumer behaviour. These behaviours are often difficult, if not impossible, to explain with an economic approach which suggests that people are “reasonable” and try to maximise some utility function (Earl and Kemp, 1999). This approach could also be observed in psychology, where the so-called “cognitive” perspective dominated for several decades, using the analogy of the individual as an information-processing instrument. However, much consumer behaviour cannot be sufficiently

explained by the information-processing paradigm. Especially, in the field of international advertising, substantial literature on consumer response to advertising has accumulated over the last decade because of the recognition of diverse cultures affecting consumer responses to different advertising messages. As a form of social communication, advertising is considered to be particularly reflective of culture. Cultural values tend to be reproduced in idealised form through advertising so that the customer may want to identify closely with the subject of the advertisements (Hong *et al.*, 1987). Mueller (1992) also indicates that cultural values, norms, and characteristics are all embedded in advertising appeals, which are used to differing degrees in various cultures. However, Lantos (1987) notes that although culture affects advertising, it is also clear that advertising subsequently modifies culture itself. Part of this research is to examine how consumer responses to advertising messages in terms of emotional appeals differ across the UK and Chinese cultures.

2.8.2.1 Rational versus Emotional Appeals

Advertising, in all media except radio, relies heavily on visual as well as verbal information. Many options are available with respect to the design and presentation of a message. An analysis of advertising content will expose a range of commonly used creative themes and executions. There are hundreds of different appeals that can be used as the basis for advertising messages. These approaches can be broadly broken into two categories: product-oriented and consumer-oriented, or so-called rational and emotional appeals.

Advertising appeal is the central concept of an advertisement that is used to attract the attention of consumers and/or to influence their feelings towards the product, service, or cause (Belch and Belch, 1998; Wells, *et al.*, 1998).

The advertising appeal can also be viewed as “something that moves people, speaks to their wants or needs, and excites their interest” (Moriarty, 1991). With similar definition, Berkman and Gilson (1987) define an advertising appeal as “the creative attempt to motivate consumers towards some form of activity or to influence attitudes towards a product or service”. They list eight primary appeals: rational, emotional, positive, negative, humor, fear, sex, and patriotism. The appeal in advertising is, therefore, a comprehensive concept which includes values and creative strategy. Research shows varying levels of emotional and rational appeals exist in the illustrations, headlines and copy (Culter and Javalgi, 1993; Mueller, 1987).

Rational appeals focus on the consumer’s practical, functional, or utilitarian need for the product or service and emphasise features of a product or service and/or the benefits or reasons for owning or using a particular brand. An advertisement for Nissan Micra that emphasises the car’s practicality and low petrol consumption offers an example of this type of appeal. The content of these messages emphasises facts, learning, and the logic of persuasion. Many rational motives can be used as the basis for advertising appeals, such as comfort, convenience, economy, health, and sensory benefits (touch, taste, and smell). Other criteria commonly used in rational appeals include quality, dependability, durability, efficiency, efficacy, and performance. Generally, rational appeals are particularly appropriate in industrial buying situations and for the purchase of expensive consumer durable products. Technical and high-involvement products often use the rational approach. They are highly informative and present important product attributes or features that will lead to favourable attitudes towards advertising.

In contrast, emotional appeals emphasise the customers’ social and/or psychological needs for purchasing a product or service. Emotional approaches attempt to stir up either negative emotions (fear, guilt, sadness, shame) or positive emotions (love, humour, pride, joy) that can motivate purchase (Kotler *et al.*, 1999). Such advertisement create a mood, an

advertisement featuring an elegant young lady using perfume illustrates this type of appeal in cosmetics. This approach relies on feelings for effectiveness. It is useful firstly to understand the meaning of emotion since emotion plays a significant role in advertising content.

Over the past two decades, emotions have been studied extensively within social contexts. Many studies use the terms affect, emotion, and mood interchangeably. In general, affect refers to the general valence of an emotional state, emotion refers to specific types or clusters of feelings that occur in response to particular events, and moods refer to relatively enduring and global states of pleasant or unpleasant feeling (Batson *et al.*, 1992; Frijda, 1993). Clore *et al.* (1994) define affect simply as the positive and negative valence of the emotional experience. Ortony *et al.* (1987) define emotions as “specific internal mental states that are focused primarily on affect”. This definition has two concepts: that emotions are internal; and they have affective states. For example, the words such as “feeling abandoned” refers to external state, the internal affective states that result from being abandoned (e.g. fear, anxiety, sadness) are emotions (Guerrero *et al.*, 1998). The differences between moods and emotions are that emotions are topically characterised as having a specific stimulus event, such as joy after having a child. In contrast, moods are frequently described as more diffuse and nonspecific (Clore *et al.*, 1994; Frijda, 1986). For example, “Why are you so happy today?” If an immediate response is, “I am happy because...” the affect is more likely due to an emotion. However, when of no immediate cause is identified or one “just feels good”, then the positive affect is more likely to be due to an elevated mood (Guerrero *et al.*, 1998).

In psychological and sociological contexts, studies of emotion in consumer research have suggested two emotion categories: basic emotions and social emotions (Huang, 1998). Basic emotions are the instinctual biological and physiological reactions that human beings possess universally and are recognised by people across cultures, including happiness, anger, fear,

sadness and love (Ekman, 1984; Kemper, 1987; Panksepp, 1992; Plutchik, 1980; Shaver *et al.*, 1992). These basic emotions have unique combinations of properties that make them discrete from one another such as anger, happiness, sadness, and fear. Social emotions are derived from these basic emotions, and are social reactions acquired at a later stage of human development through the socialisation process and which are culturally specific, including humour, guilt, warmth, and nostalgia (Harris and Saarni, 1989; Kemper, 1987; Malatesta and Wilson, 1988; Scheff, 1990).

Many advertisers believe that appeals to consumers' emotions work better at selling brands that are not markedly different from competing brands, since rational differentiation between them is difficult (Agres, 1991). Furthermore, research shows that advertising using humor, sex, and other emotional appeals that are very entertaining, arousing, upbeat, and/or exciting can affect the emotions of consumers and put them in a favourable frame of mind (Kamp and Macinnis, 1995). Research on the effect of emotion states on consumer behaviour also indicates that positive emotion states created by advertising can have a favourable effect on consumers' evaluation of a product and can be better remembered than non-emotional messages (Holbrook, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Madison, 1990; Shimp, 1981). Many feelings or needs can serve as the basis for advertising appeals designed to influence consumers on an emotional level such as safety, love, happiness, grief, status, involvement, affiliation, and so on.

2.8.2.2 Comparisons of Advertising Appeals in the UK and China

Cross-cultural differences in advertising appeals is a growing and important area of research, primarily because an understanding of these differences is needed in order to take on the creative challenge of communicating to people from diverse cultural backgrounds (Biswas *et al.*, 1987). Over the past decade,

most of the studies examining cross-cultural differences in advertising appeals can be grouped into two broad categories.

The first category of studies has analysed advertising appeals across dissimilar cultural value systems, such as the US and Korea (Jeon *et al.*, 1999); the US and Japan (Belk and Bryce, 1986; Hong *et al.*, 1987; Javalgi *et al.*, 1995; Mueller, 1987, 1991 and 1992); the US, Australia, and Mexico (Gilly, 1988); the US and the United Arab Republic (Al-Deen and Hana, 1991; Al-Olayan and Karande, 2000) and the US and Germany (Piron and Young, 1996). A second category has compared advertising appeals between the US and other less obviously culturally different countries, such as the UK and Australia (Dowling, 1980; Weinberger and Spotts, 1989a and 1989b); the UK, Australia and New Zealand (Fay, 1999); the European Community (Cutler and Javalgi, 1992); France (Biswas *et al.*, 1992) and Sweden (Wiles *et al.*, 1996).

The Chinese advertising style reflects collectivistic and Confucian values which emphasise interpersonal relationships, indirect approaches, non-verbal expression, physical settings, and social circumstances (Mooij, 1998; Stove, 1974). However, it cannot be compared with the styles of other Chinese societies, such as Hong Kong, Singapore and Taiwan, as their advertising industries have developed separately. Generally, advertising in developing markets focuses on product attributes, but a rapidly developing advertising industry seems to lead towards a more characteristic advertising style in mainland China, with less direct product-selling approaches. According to the literature review in Section 2.8.1.1, in the early 1990s, Chinese advertisements tended to use in 'utilitarian' (rational appeals) and 'product quality' values less frequency, while the values increasing in occurrence were more symbolic (emotional appeals) in which more human emotions is implied. Research suggests that the most effective advertisements for the Chinese market are those that balance a product's lifestyle images with information on how the product can be used, other research indicates that Chinese consumers consider informative or hard-sell commercials as boring and prefer

messages with striking visual imagery and emotional appeals (Cui, 1997). However, many Chinese brands spend significantly less on advertising than their foreign counterparts. This is because many of the established Chinese brand names are made by State or Provincially owned firms who enjoy a long-standing, loyal customer base because of their long operating histories, reasonable quality, and lower prices relative to newcomers. Evidence also shows that urban young people tend to be more brands conscious than other age groups. In fact, with growth in the mass media in China and competition among brands heating up, advertising has become crucial to both China and the success of foreign consumer products.

The UK advertising style reflects a highly individualistic society and its commercials appear to sell both individualism and masculinity. UK advertising relies heavily on direct communication, using persuasiveness and trend-setting images. Appeals to the ego and to personal success are popular advertising approaches. The UK is the only European country in which class differences are so highly recognised in advertising. Some commercials are especially designed to appeal to the upper or lower classes (Mooij, 1998). However, the literature indicates that the UK advertising style appears to use different appeal approaches when compared with American advertising. Research shows that UK advertising has been dominated by two cultural values: tradition/history and eccentricity, and tends to use implicit and indirect approaches (Caillat and Mueller, 1996; Firth and Wesson, 1991). As indicated in the literature review on Section 2.8.1.1, UK advertisements are based on a metaphor of myth and ritual (holistic cultural) dominated by a softer sell with understated humour and highly visual (in contrast to verbal) content (Carely, 1975; Lannon and Cooper, 1983; Lannon, 1986). UK advertisers use more soft sell methods, which would include greater use of humour, than the more hard sell, which is dominant in US advertising.

For years, advertisers have used sexual themes and humour appeals to attract attention and build brand awareness. These two appeals are

commonly used in the Western advertising style. However, there is growing evidence that many consumers find sexual appeals to be offensive and objectionable. Sex in advertisements is banned in China. Censors decide whether advertisements breach China's "spiritual civilisation", a phrase allowing even the mildest advertisement to be banned (Graham, 1998). Foreign companies can run into some unexpected problems if they do not handle this type of appeal carefully. For example, Ogilvy & Mather came up against this rule when trying to adapt a Pepsi advertisement for China. The original has Michael J. Fox answering his door to a stunning beauty in search of a Pepsi. He is out of Pepsi, but asks the girl to wait while he leaps through the window, runs down the fire escape, dashes across the road and buys the drink from a local store. The company, however, was told the girl has to be wholesome. The man couldn't go through the window, because burglars go through windows. And before dashing across the street, he had to wait until the light turned green (Graham, 1998).

Research shows that humour and parody are important elements of British advertising. The incidence of humour in British commercials appears to be "significantly higher" than in the US and British advertising executives are confident humour works (Caillat and Mueller, 1996; Firth and Wesson, 1991; Weinberger and Spotts, 1989a and 1989b). From the view of a positive emotional appeal, advertisers use the humour theme to gain attention and comprehension, increase persuasion, and enhance source credibility. However, the complexity of influencing factors such as product type, communication goals, medium humour type, environment and audience means that general conclusions cannot easily be drawn (Hass, 1997). According to Saywell (2000), humour has a strong appeal to Chinese audiences too. Not only do the Chinese love slapstick but they also love cultural humour based on witty word plays, clever double and even triple meanings, and metaphors and regional accents. Saatchi & Saatchi is now trying to do more advertising using slapstick, but the problem is to convince its client that these kinds of advertisements will work in China.

It is suggested that as products become more homogeneous, the emotional attributes of a brand become essential for differentiation. As a consequence, advertising will tend to rely more heavily on emotions to attract consumers' attention and interest in the field of international advertising (Appelbaum and Halliburton, 1993; Huang, 1998; Moore, 1989). In fact, the same content may receive widely different reactions from consumers because of diverse cultural backgrounds. For example, humour and sex appeals. Therefore, this research avoids discussing these two common Western themes in advertising, because sex is banned and humour appeals to Chinese consumers are still in its "infancy stage".

Furthermore, Levitt (1983) and other proponents of global marketing propose that the world is becoming one large "global village" with increasingly homogeneous needs and wants. The use of global advertising standardisation has been debated for over a decade (Hammonds, 1990; Jain, 1989). As will be described, this research has focused on UK and Chinese young adults on undergraduate business courses. They are believed to be more homogenous as a consumer group compared with other age groups. Based on the preceding discussion, it is presumed that such homogeneous international populations (UK and China) should all have similar responses to the basic emotion appeals.

2.8.3 Attitudes Towards Advertising in General

A considerable amount of research has indicated that attitudes towards an advertisement have a significant influence on advertising effectiveness, brand attitudes, and purchase intentions (Mitchell and Olson, 1981; Shimp, 1981; Lutz, *et al.*, 1983; Lutz, 1985; MacKenzie *et al.*, 1986; MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989). Advertising scholars have shown that attitudes towards advertising in general (AG) is one of five important determinants of attitude towards specific

advertisements (Lutz, 1985). Lutz (1985, p.53) defines the AG construct as “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner to advertising in general”.

Numerous studies have examined attitude towards advertising; and most of them have relied upon Bauer and Greyser’s (1968) construct which acts as a two-dimensional measure of perceived social and economic effects of attitudes towards advertising in general. Most of these studies focus on developed countries, such as those in North America and Europe (Al-Makaty *et al.*, 1996; Anderson *et al.*, 1978; Andrews *et al.*, 1994; Christian, 1974; Crane, 1991; Crane *et al.*, 1989; Dunn and Yorke, 1974; Haller, 1974; Johns and Moser, 1989; Larkin, 1977; Lutz, 1975; Moser and Johns, 1996; O’Donohoe, 1995; Rau and Preble, 1988; Shavitt *et al.*, 1998).

Some studies have dealt with cross-cultural comparisons of attitudes towards advertising (Andrews *et al.*, 1991; Andrews *et al.*, 1994; Durvasula *et al.*, 1993; Lysonski and Pollay, 1990; Samiee and Ryans, 1982; Santos, 1976; Somasundaram and Light, 1991; Yoon *et al.*, 1991). Few studies have investigated attitudes towards advertising in China. For example, studies on attitudes of Chinese business executives and managers towards advertising with various economic and social consequences of advertising have been discussed by Kwan *et al.*, (1983); Semenik *et al.*, (1986); and Semenik and Tao, (1993). Overall, previous research has suggested that Chinese advertising professionals and managers were generally favourable towards advertising as an efficient business tool and were more realistic about its potential effects. Pollay, Tse and Wang (1990) examined consumers in three cities: Beijing, Guangzhou, and Harbin. They found that those Chinese consumers aged between 20-40 years old were favorably disposed to advertising and quite optimistic about advertising’s economic and social consequences. Chinese consumers, however, disliked some aspects of current advertisements from Chinese firms and perceived them to be inferior to those of the foreign firms after the New Cultural Revolution. These past

studies on Chinese attitudes towards advertising were based on the economic and social transition either before or after the Cultural Revolution and “open door” policy, or the political situation following the Tiananmen Square Incident. However, since the UK withdrew from Hong Kong in 1997, this has created a new environment in China. Are the Chinese new-generation attitudes towards advertising different from previous findings? Crellin (1998) revealed that the 15-35 year olds in China felt positive towards advertising. In particular, Crellin found that young and better educated people feel generally skeptical towards advertising in general. They also seek novelty and material progress. People under age 35 years old who grew up through Deng’s economic reform (1978 - 1997) and ‘open door’ policy are more influenced by fashion and Western products (Lin, 1985).

In spite of the growth of the Chinese new-generation, there has been little research on those new consumers’ attitudes towards advertising in general. Are there any differences and similarities of attitudes towards advertising between the two nations’ young adults? Part of this research attempts to fill this gap by examining the perceptions of attitudes towards advertising between the UK and Chinese young adults.

The development of a measuring instrument for the cultural values, emotional responses, and attitudes towards advertising in general are discussed in Chapter 3.

2.9 Advertisement Effectiveness

Fundamentally, advertising seeks to establish, modify, or reinforce attitudes, causing consumers to try a new product or switch brands. Over the years, a number of models have emerged to demonstrate what advertising, or more broadly, the promotional mix needs to achieve. Chisnall (1985) has described

that logical-flow models of buying behaviour have been used quite widely in the specialised field of advertising research. A number of models have been used to help advertisers analyse the effectiveness of their messages. Most of these models organize message effects from the simplest kind of impact to the most complex. These hierarchical or linear sequential models of advertising nearly all place attention (awareness) in an early and important position, such as DAGMAR, AIDA and Lavidge and Steiner's Hierarchy of Effects Model. Over time advertisers try to reach consumers with advertising through mass media simply as a means to get them to notice it. This is harder than it appears. Daniel Starch (1923), one of the pioneers of advertising measurement, commented that an advertisement is to be successful needs to be seen, read, believed, remembered and acted upon.

There are various means to measure advertising effectiveness. Such research can be undertaken both before and after an advertisement is run. For example:

Pre-testing measures include:

- Opinion and attitude ratings, gathered by questioning a sample of the prospective audience,
- Projective techniques, which are indirectly, elicited responses from the audience using motivation research techniques,
- Laboratory testing, gathered by exposing a sample of customers to the advertisement and testing their reactions.

Post-testing measures include:

- Recognition and recall,
- Changes in attitude ascribable to the advertisement,
- Enquiries and sales measures; for example, the return of a card included with the advertising (Cited from Jain, 1995).

The aim of the current research is to examine the role of culture in advertising content and its influence on consumer behaviour. If culture is reflected in advertising, then advertisers will need to customise their messages for different cultures in order to be successful with their foreign consumers. Otherwise, the same advertising should suffice different markets regardless of geographical and cultural differences. This study, therefore, does not intend to measure the effectiveness of advertisements; it seeks to provide advertisers and marketers with relevant information on the promotional strategies to adopt in overseas markets and to shed some light on the relative effectiveness of emotional versus rational appeals in international advertising messages specifically with reference to the UK and China.

2.10 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the major streams of literature on the relationships between culture, advertising and consumer behaviour as well as responding to the criticisms in the literature. Culture plays a central and complex role in advertising. As a form of social communication, advertising is considered to be particularly reflective of culture. Cultural values tend to be reproduced in an idealised form through advertising so that the consumers may want to identify closely with the subject of the advertisements (Hong *et al.*, 1987). However, Lantos (1987) notes that although culture affects advertising, it is also clear that advertising subsequently modifies culture itself. This research study, however, does not intend to classify countries or cultures, but rather to provide advertisers and marketers with an understanding of how cultures differ, influenced by consumer responses to different advertising appeals.

For the purpose of this research, a research framework was proposed to assist the analyses of each of the key concepts. It is suggested that cultural values between the UK and Chinese young adults may result from the

thirty-three items as measured by the content analysis of cultural values (see more detail in Section 3.2 and Table 3.1). In advertising appeals, UK and Chinese young adults may use different styles characterised by the dimensions of happy, fearful, pleasant, angry, interested, disgusted, sad and surprised, as measure by the Pluchik Mood Rating Scale (see more detail in Section 3.3). Attitudes towards advertising in general will be examined by 20-attitudinal statements (see more detail in Section 3.4 and Table 3.3). Methodologies of this research, the testing of hypotheses, and full analyses and discussions are presented in the following chapters.

CHAPTER 3 BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents further discussion of the background and research hypotheses that have been formulated to examine the key concepts concerning the effect of advertising on consumer responses across cultures. On the basis of the research framework developed in the previous chapter, the discussion of the measuring instrument is divided into three sections, namely cultural values, emotional responses, and attitudes towards advertising in general in Sections 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4. The discussion of the development of hypotheses is presented in Section 3.5. The hypothesis testing is described in Section 3.6. The chapter summary is drawn in Section 3.7.

As a result of cost and time constraints imposed on this study, it does not seek to develop new measurement scales for the variables and constructs. The measurement instruments and scales used in this research were adapted from previous studies, which will be described in detail in the following sections. In the light of the issues arising from the cross-cultural equivalence, further testing of the measuring instrument on attitudes towards advertising in general was examined.

3.2 Measurement Instrument for Cultural Values

This research is partly based on Cheng's (1994) cultural values framework, which was originally built on Pollay's (1983) typology of cultural values. Pollay (1983) has proposed four criteria that need to be considered when designing the coding categories of advertising content. These criteria are:

- 1) *Consistency with the literature.* This requires that the coding categories should be consistent with the literature that discusses the measurement of values in other contexts, and with the literature commenting on the social role of advertising.
- 2) *Relevance and richness.* This suggests that the category system should be exhaustive and include a coding category for all the common advertising appeals. These coding categories should have concepts appropriate to the values attached to objects, self, and/or society for all of these are used in advertising. The richness of advertising should code both art and copy and the recognition of both dominant and subordinate themes.
- 3) *Analytical flexibility.* This suggests that the coding scheme should provide for minimal interrelation between categories, making each category unique and the coding task minimally ambiguous. The coding categories will also hopefully provide for maximal discrimination between the cultural content of advertising and the values promoted by other social institutions.
- 4) *Reliability.* Finally, it recommends that the need for reliability can be increased by making the coding task easier through a structural organisation of the list into clear cognitive patterns and through consistency of definitions. It also requires careful well-trained coders and procedure, which minimises coding fatigue.

Many scholars have developed value concepts. For example, Starch (1928) identified 48 different motives utilised in advertising, such as hunger, appetite, love shyness and teasing. Andren *et al.*, (1980) generated an ad hoc list of 24 rhetorical approaches. Murray's (1938) 26 needs were much more widely recognised as a useful list of motives. White (1951) adapted Murray's 26 needs for content analysis of values, he identified 50 different

values and divided them into six broad categories: physiological, social egotistic, fearful, practical, cognitive and moral. The most widely cited and recognised contemporary work on value analysis is Rokeach's (1973). He identified 18 "instrumental" and 18 "terminal" values. In order to meet those criteria mentioned above, Pollay identified 48 values by pilot testing a sample of 100 advertisements using each of the schemes of Fowles (1976), White, and Rokeach. Since then, many researchers in the field of advertising have adapted Pollay's 48 values.

Cheng's (1994) cultural values framework, which was originally built on Pollay's (1983) typology of cultural values, has been used in analysing USA, China and Hong Kong's advertising content by examining print advertisements and TV commercials. The research reported here was partly based on Cheng's framework and adapted the cultural value scheme from Cheng's studies (1994 and 1996). A sample of 10 percent from each country's magazine advertisements (59 samples from 594 in total in British advertisements, and 15 samples from 154 in total in Chinese advertisements) was coded by two coders for testing the applicability (see Section 5.3.2 for detail). As a result of this pre-test coding, "courtesy" and "ornamental" values were eliminated because there were no appearances for these two values from the selected pre-test samples; and the "sex" value was redefined because coders were confused by the original definition from Cheng's framework. Cheng's framework defines "sex" as "the advertisement uses glamorous and sensual models or has a background of lovers holding hands, embracing, or kissing to promote a product". Coders argued that the words "glamorous" and "sensual" were ambiguous. It was hard to judge the exact meaning because of the different viewpoints held by each coder. This misunderstanding resulted, in the pre-test stage, that most advertisements with women presented being coded with the "sex" value. After careful discussion with all coders and comparison with other researcher works, a new definition for the "sex" value was established. For the purpose of this research, the "sex" value was redefined as "the advertisement shows either

related to or enhances sexual activity in the broadest sense of the word (from flirting through petting and erotic body contact to full intercourse), or shows that the product enhances its user’s sexual attractiveness”. Thus, through piloting, the coding scheme for the current analysis utilised thirty-three cultural values. Table 3.1 presents the definition for each cultural value.

Table 3.1 Conceptual Definitions of Cultural Values

Cultural Values	Definitions
Adventure	This value suggests boldness, daring, bravery, courage, or thrill. Sky diving is a typical example.
Beauty	This value suggests that the use of a product will enhance the loveliness, attractiveness, elegance, or handsomeness of an individual.
Collectivism	The emphasis here is on the individual in relation to others typically in the reference group. Especially, it focuses on family or friends in a social setting. Individuals are depicted as integral parts of the group.
Competition	The emphasis here is on distinguishing a product from its counterparts by aggressive comparisons. While explicit comparisons may mention the competitor's name, implicit comparisons may use such words as 'number one' or leader'.
Convenience	A product is suggested to be handy and easy to use.
Economy	The inexpensive, affordable, and cost-saving nature of a product is emphasised in the advertisement.
Effectiveness	A product is suggested to be powerful and capable of achieving certain ends.
Enjoyment	This value suggests that a product will make its user wild with joy. Typical examples include the fun that beer or soda drinkers demonstrate in some advertisements.
Family	The emphasis here is on the family life and family members. The commercial stresses family scenes: getting married, companionship of siblings, kinship, being at home, and suggests that a certain product is good for the whole family.
Health	This value recommends that the use of a product will enhance or improve the vitality, soundness, strength, and robust of the body.

Table 3.1 Conceptual Definitions of Cultural Values (continued.)

Cultural Values	Definitions
Individualism	The emphasis here is on the self-sufficiency and self-reliance of an individual or on the individual as being distinct and unlike others.
Leisure	This value suggests that the use of a product will bring one comfort or relaxation.
Knowledge	The emphasis is on the educational and information function of a product or service. It is also advisable and intelligent to use the product, for experts will do so; e.g. 'Judge for yourself'; 'Experts agree...'; 'It will enrich your knowledge'.
Magic	The emphasis here is on the miraculous effect and nature of a product, e.g., 'Bewitch your man...'; 'Heals like magic.'
Modernity	The notion of being new, contemporary, up-to-date, and ahead of time is emphasised in advertisements.
Naturalness	This value suggests spiritual harmony between man and nature by making references to the elements, animals, vegetables, or minerals.
Neatness	The notion is being clean and tidy is stressed in a commercial.
Nurturance	This value stresses giving charity, help, protection, support, or sympathy to the weak, disabled, young, or elderly.
Ornamental	This value emphasises the decorative nature and function of product.
Patriotism	The love of and the loyalty to one's own nation inherent in the nature or in the use of a product are suggested here.
Popularity	The focus here is on the universal recognition and acceptance of a certain product by consumers, e.g., 'Best seller'; 'Well-known nation-wide or world-wide'.
Practicality	The theme is the useful, realistic and versatile nature and function of a particular product.
Quality	The emphasis here is on the excellence and durability of a product, which is usually claimed to be a winner of medals or certificates awarded by a government department for its high grade or is demonstrated by the product's excellent performance.

Table 3.1 Conceptual Definitions of Cultural Values (continued)

Cultural Values	Definitions
Respect for Elderly	The commercial displays a respect for an older people by using a model of old age or asking for the opinions, recommendations, and advice of the elders.
Safety	The reliable and secure nature of a product is emphasised.
Sex	The advertisement shows either related to or enhances sexual activity in the broadest sense of the word (from flirting through petting and erotic body contact to full intercourse), or shows that the product enhances its user's sexual attractiveness".
Social Status	The use of a product is claimed to be able to elevate the position or rank of the user in the eyes of others. The feeling of prestige, trendsetting, and pride in the use of a product is conveyed. The promotion of a company manager's status or fame by quoting his words or showing his picture in the commercial is also included.
Technology	Here, the advanced and sophisticated technical skills to engineer and manufacture a particular product are emphasised.
Tradition	The experience of the past, customs, and conventions are respected. The qualities of being historical, time-honoured, and legendary are venerated, e.g., 'With 80 years of manufacturing experience'; 'It's adapted from ancient Chinese prescriptions'.
Uniqueness	The unrivalled, incomparable, and unparalleled nature of a product is emphasised, e.g., 'We're the only one that offers you the product'.
Wealth	This value conveys the idea that being affluent, prosperous, and rich should be encouraged and suggests that a certain product or service will make the user well-off.
Wisdom	This value shows respect for knowledge, education, intelligence, expertise, or experience.
Work	This value shows respect for diligence and dedication of one's labour and skills. A typical example is that a medication has regained a desperate patient his or her ability to work.
Youth	The worship of the younger generation is shown through the depiction of younger models. The rejuvenating benefits of the product are stressed, e.g., 'Feel young again'.

Source: adapted mainly from Cheng, 1994 and Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996.

In order to investigate the hypotheses for the advertising content analysis, it is necessary to subdivide the thirty-three cultural values. Rational values refer, as indicated earlier (see Section 2.8.2.1) to those emphasising product features or attributes that are utilitarian in nature, such as “convenience”, “economy” and “quality”. Emotional values refer to those suggesting human emotions and symbolic values, such as enjoyment, adventure and popularity (Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996). There are no established bases for such a division. Consequently, the thirty-three cultural values were separately allocated to each category by the author and two independent coders familiar with the advertising content analysis. Subsequent comparison of allocation revealed that a number of cultural values were disagreed from the coding among coders. These few disagreements were resolved from discussion to provide an agreed allocation as presented in Table 3.2. Many of these cultural values can be regarded as typical of either traditional (Eastern) or modern (Western) cultures. For example, while “collectivism” and “tradition” are typical traditional cultural values, “individualism” and “modernity” are typical modern cultural values (Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996; Lin, 1993; Mueller, 1987 and 1992). In addition, traditional cultural values are also reflected in the following traditional appeals: group consensus appeal, soft-sell appeal, veneration of elderly and traditional appeals, status appeals, oneness with nature appeals; modern cultural values can be found in the following Westernised appeals: individual/independence appeals, hard-sell appeals, youth/modernity appeals, product merit appeals, and manipulation of nature appeals (Mueller, 1987). These guidelines for the traditional (Eastern) or modern (Western) cultures are demonstrated in the later data analysis of advertising content analysis in Chapter 6.

In addition, the findings obtained purely from advertising content do not permit related estimations of an individual’s rational thought process, changes in aspirations and emotions, and values and morality (Mueller, 1987). Chan also (1999) points out it would be a severe violation of content-analysis principles to try to make inferences about changes in consumer’s

perceptions, attitudes or behaviour. It is essential for this study to survey consumers' preferred values by examining their emotional responses and attitudes towards the advertising. The measurement instruments for emotional responses and attitudes towards advertising in general are presented in the following sub-sections.

Table 3.2 Classifications of Rational and Emotional Cultural Values

Rational Cultural Values	Emotional Cultural Values
Collectivism	Adventure
Convenience	Beauty
Economy	Competition
Effectiveness	Enjoyment
Health	Family
Knowledge	Individualism
Modernity	Leisure
Naturalness	Magic
Neatness	Nurturance
Practicality	Patriotism
Quality	Popularity
Respect for Elderly	Sex
Safety	Social Status
Technology	Tradition
Wisdom	Uniqueness
Work	Wealth
	Youth

3.3 Measurement Instrument for Emotional Responses

People all have different feelings or emotions about their daily life, sometimes they feel good and sometimes they feel bad. People like to experience certain feelings or emotions and avoid others. The feelings and emotions can be triggered in an instant. No doubt, emotions are powerful forces influencing behaviour. How do we measure emotions? Most previous studies regarding emotions over the past century have considered these from

one of four points of view: (1) the evolutionary tradition - Charles Darwin, (2) the psychophysiological tradition - William James, (3) the neurological tradition - Walter B. Cannon and (4) the dynamic tradition - Sigmund Freud (Plutchik, 1980a).

Based on the theories of these four pioneers, many scholars have built several typologies of emotional content over the past two decades (Daly *et al.*, 1983; Izard, 1977; Mehrabian and Russell, 1974; Plutchik, 1980a; Tomkins, 1962, and so on). The two main typologies that have received wide practice in studying emotion in recent consumer research are the categorical and dimensional approaches. The categorical approach is based on a supposition that all emotions stem from a list of basic emotion categories involving positive and negative emotions, such as happiness, sadness (Ekman, 1972 and 1992; Izard, 1977; Tomkins, 1962). These emotions evolved because they had adaptive value and distinguished emotions from one another. In contrast, the dimensional approach is based on factor or cluster analyses that posit three or more bipolar dimensions of emotions involving pleasure, arousal, and dominance (Daly *et al.*, 1983; Davitz, 1969; Mehrabian and Russell, 1974). This means that the dimensional approach focuses on identifying emotions based on their placement along dimensions. These include positive and negative affect dimensions. Examples of these are Russell's (1978 and 1980) two-dimensional circumplex model, Daly *et al.*, (1983) three-dimensional model, and Plutchik's (1983 and 1984) multidimensional model.

Plutchik (1962, 1980a, 1980b, 1983, and 1984) developed a conceptual model of emotions based on the idea that emotions must be considered from a broad, evolutionary perspective. He assumed that emotions as seen in human adults are complex, mixed, and difficult to unravel but have fundamental components similar to those seen in young children or in animals (Plutchik, 1980). This implied that emotions must be inferred from indirect evidence. Plutchik's theory has built eight basic patterns of emotion

which are identifiable at all phylogenetic levels. Plutchick's Mood Rating scale is the reduced version of a lengthy checklist of Emotion-Mood Index (Platman *et al.*, 1969) designed to measure emotional status.

The original "A Theoretically Based Adjective Checklist, the Emotion-Mood Index" (Platman *et al.*, 1969) contains nine broad categories including 72 basic emotion dimensions. As one of the advantages of this "Emotion-Mood Index" checklist is its comparative brevity, for example, *sad*, *sorrowful*, or *grief-stricken* all represent different levels of the same basic emotion dimension. It is, however, unnecessary to repeat them all in a checklist. This brief affect rating scale has been tested and it was found that these single adjective mood scales are sensitive to stress, cover a wide range of affect states, and have theoretical relevance (Lubin, 1965 and 1966; Plutchik, 1965; Plutchik *et al.*, 1975). A large number of studies based on this scale have been completed. Recently, Plutchik's eight emotional scales have been studied in the context of emotional responses to a wide range of television commercials (Holbrook and Westwood, 1983), and magazines (Biswas *et al.*, 1992; Hong *et al.*, 1987). For this research, the emotional response was measured by Plutchik's abbreviated Mood Rating Scale (1980a).

Another reason for using Plutchik's abbreviated Mood Rating Scale is based on considerations of the implementation feasibility and translation equivalence. The more common and valid multiple-items method of measuring emotional responses, such as the Standardised Emotional Profile (SEP) consists of pleasure, arousal and domination dimensions with 27 subdimensions, would present difficulty of achieving translation equivalence and comparison of cross-cultural data (Huang, 1998).

Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale uses one word to represent each of the basic emotional dimensions, along with a five-point intensity scale ranging from "not at all" to "very strongly". The scale consists of eight basic emotional dimensions: happy, fearful, pleasant, angry, interested, disgusted, sad and

surprised. The detail of operational procedure for measuring emotional responses is presented in Chapter 4.

3.4 Measurement of Attitudes Towards Advertising in General

The construct of attitudes towards advertising in general has gained substantial attention over the past two decades, as it is an important underlying determinant of attitude towards specific advertisements. Earlier studies measured general advertising attitudes as an “overall favourability or unfavourability” factor. Bauer and Greyser (1968) developed a set of belief items related to positive and negative outcomes of advertising, which have been extremely influential in this area. Using factor analysis, their study, which resulted in a two-dimensional measure of perceived social and economic effects of attitudes towards advertising, has been used in attitude studies among executives, *Consumer Reports* subscribers and school students (Anderson *et al.*, 1978a and 1978b; Pollay and Mittal, 1993). These researchers also found and confirmed that the construct of Bauer and Greyser’s beliefs about advertising predicted consumers’ attitudes towards advertising were supported.

While some researchers have argued that Bauer and Greyser’s measurement is a narrow perspective on attitudes towards advertising, Sandage and Leckenby (1980) distinguished between consumer attitudes to the “institution” and the “instrument” of advertising. Reid and Soley (1982) modified their framework and observed that consumers may hold beliefs about advertising at both personalised and generalised levels. Many other dimensions of attitudes towards advertising have been studied and developed, such as using thought-listing procedures (Muehling, 1987), using four characteristics of dimension: belief, function, attitudes and demographic (Alwitt and Prabhaker, 1992), using four different dimensions- economic, social, ethics and regulation (Larkin, 1977).

Several Chinese studies (Kwan *et al.*, 1983; Ho and Sin, 1986; Pollay *et al.*, 1990; Semenik *et al.*, 1986; Semenik and Tao, 1993; Thorelli, 1982) have used similar attitudinal statements, based on Larkin's (1977) four dimensions. Most of these studies examined attitudes towards advertising by using four different dimensions based on economic, social, ethics and regulation effects. Many other studies using similar belief structures have also found in recent literature, such as Ramaprasad 1994; Rustogi *et al.*, 1996; Tuncalp, 1990 and Yang, 2000. Most of these attitudinal studies analysed the data by comparing the mean differences in the areas of economic, social, ethics and regulation.

Larkin's (1977) 26 Likert-type statements are designed to measure attitudes towards advertising along with four different dimensions: 1) economic effects, 2) social effects, 3) ethics effects and 4) regulation effects. He used Q-analysis to extract five factors in order to gain insights into the students' attitudes towards advertising. This type of factor analysis provides information concerning the ways in which individuals cluster on certain attitudinal dimensions which can then be used as the basis for describing the ideas which they hold in common, and as a means of differentiating them from other clusters of individuals.

Yang's (2000) study extended the studies of Pollay and Mittal (1993), Ramaprasad (1994) and Ramaprasad and Thurwanger (1998) to a different setting: Taiwan. The study used factor analysis to extract six factors from the data, which were compared with the eight dimensions found in Ramaprasad and Thurwanger (1998) and the six factors found in Pollay and Mittal (1993). Yang concluded that the factor analysis results from the Taiwanese data did not replicate those proposed in Pollay and Mittal (1993) and, Ramaprasad and Thurwanger (1998) perfectly, however, there were many similarities, from which the author concluded that the belief structure underling attitudes towards advertising is similar to those in the US.

For this research, part of the questionnaire survey selected the belief statements from Larkin's (1977) study. Scale items not applicable in China were deleted; these included items such as "There should be less stress on sex in advertising". Table 3.3 lists the 20-attitudinal statements in detail. These 20 statements of attitudinal information were developed into five-point Likert scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The procedure of delivering the questionnaire is presented in Chapter 4.

Table 3.3 Statements of Attitudes Towards Advertising in General

1. Advertising is essential to the prosperity of our economy.
2. Advertising helps raise our standard of living.
3. Advertising results in better products for the public.
4. In general advertising results in lower prices.
5. Advertising increases the costs of goods and services.
6. Advertising fosters monopolies.
7. Advertising is wasteful of money.
8. Advertising persuades people to buy things they really don't need.
9. Advertising just tends to confuse people with bewildering choices.
10. Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer.
11. Most advertising is silly and ridiculous.
12. Advertising affects children more than adults.
13. Advertising is making us a nation of conformists.
14. Advertising makes people materialistic.
15. In general, advertisements present a true picture of product advertising.
16. Too much of today's advertising is false and misleading.
17. There is too much exaggeration in advertising today.
18. There is too much advertising today.
19. Harmful/dangerous products should not be advertised.
20. There should be more government regulation of advertising.

Source: modified from Larkin, 1971.

3.5 The Development of Hypotheses

The ever-increasing interest in international advertising from practitioners and academics has resulted in extensive studies in this area. Especially, the

need for the information of the youth market in China, and how different marketing communication strategies operate in diverse cultures and its impact on advertising appeals and consumer behaviour, which lead to the success of international advertising across cultures. The literature review of the relationships among culture, advertising and consumer behaviour and the theoretical frameworks outlined in Chapter 2 have established the need for an increase in the knowledge of the effect of international advertising on consumer response in the UK and China advertising environments.

As the importance of international trade and advertising has increased, the debate over the standardisation and specialisation of advertising across cultures has gained great attention. This research focuses on the diverse cultures between the UK and China, rather than providing a debate on global advertising perspectives. However, one important issue in the global viewpoint is the homogeneity of basic values across different cultures. As this research is aimed at the youth market, according to the literature review (see Chapter 1 and 2), these youth generations are not only the most promising market segment, but also have the most common and similar characteristics. Based on this assumption, they should have similar responses related to emotional appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general. Given the different cultural values backgrounds of the British and Chinese (see Section 2.8), it is assumed that both countries would have significant differences impact on cultural values and advertising appeals.

Cultural values play a crucial role in the development of international advertising. The hypotheses to be tested in this study are related to the three key issues identified from the research gap. They are:

- The effect of culture on advertising content;
- The diverse cultures impact on advertising emotional appeals;
- The perceptions of attitudes towards advertising in general.

According to these key issues, the hypotheses for this research are listed as follows. Table 3.4 outlines the summary of objectives, operations and hypotheses.

HYPOTHESIS ONE:

Chinese magazine advertisements tend to use more emotional cultural values than UK magazine advertisements.

HYPOTHESIS TWO:

Chinese magazine advertisements tend to use more traditional cultural values than UK magazine advertisements.

HYPOTHESIS THREE:

UK and Chinese young adults tend to experience similar positive basic emotions when exposed to emotional appeals advertising.

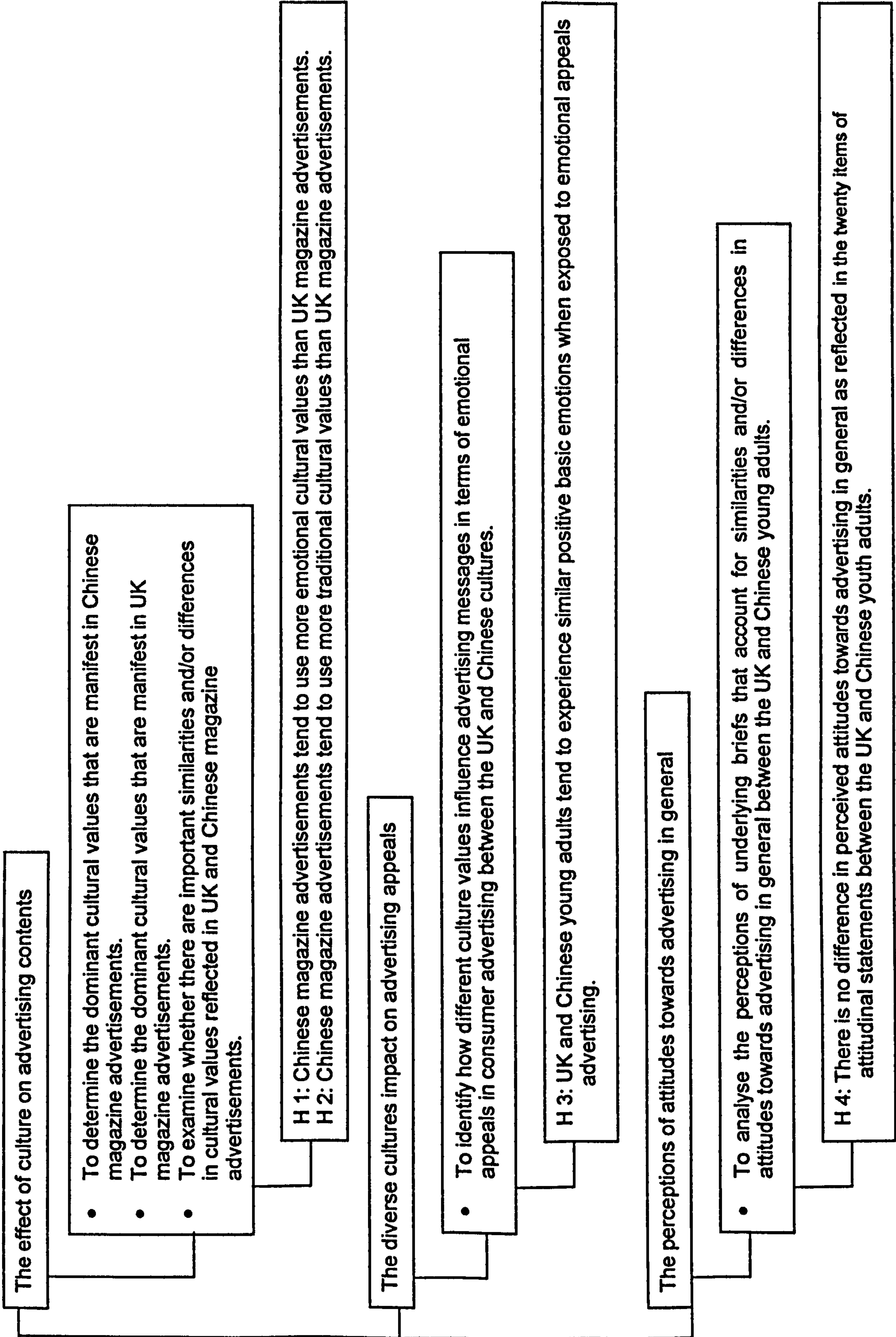
HYPOTHESIS FOUR:

There is no difference in perceived attitudes towards advertising in general as reflected in the twenty items of attitudinal statements between the UK and Chinese young adults.

3.6 Testing the Hypotheses

On the basis of the research framework (see Figure 2.4), hypotheses have been generated in line with the two-fold aims of the research, i.e. identifying the differences of cultural values and emotional appeals between the British and Chinese youth markets, and testing the cross-cultural applicability of the measuring instruments. Hypotheses one and two are tested through content analysis of UK and Chinese magazine advertisements in 1996 and 1997 by examining 33 cultural values in order to determine the dominant cultural

Table 3.4 Summary of Objectives, Operations and Hypotheses

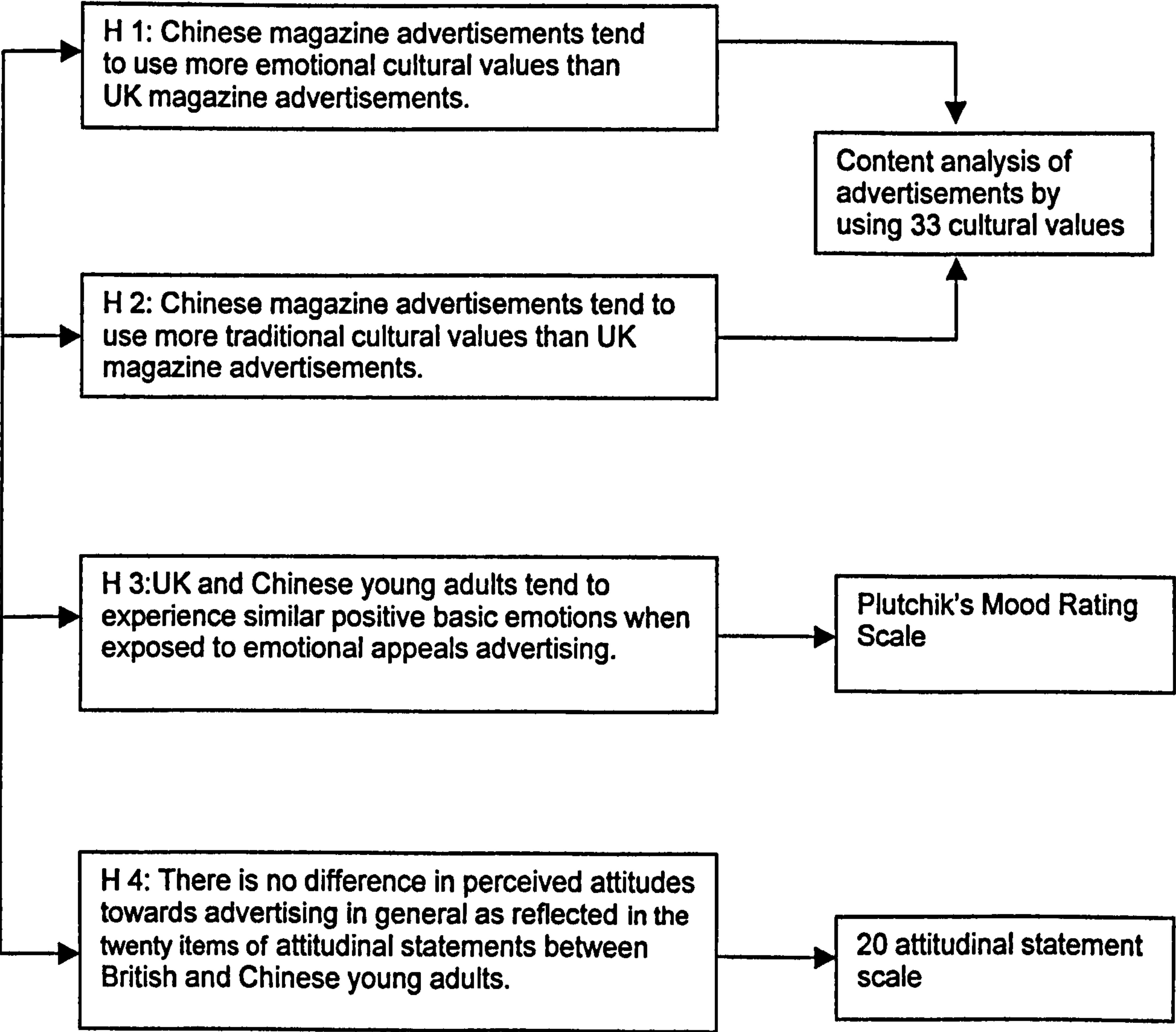


values manifest in the two nations' advertising and identify any similarities and/or differences between them. Hypothesis three is examined by testing a selected number of magazine advertisements in terms of emotional responses. The Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale is used to explore how both nations' young adults respond to different emotional advertising appeals. Finally, hypothesis four is tested by using a 20-attitudinal five-point Likert scale to examine its cross-cultural equivalence. The frequency and mean will be used to assess the hypotheses. For the convenience of an overall view, these hypotheses and related tests are summarised in Table 3.5.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has sought to discuss the development of measuring instruments for the three key concepts as indicated in the research framework: cultural values, advertising appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general (see Figure 2.4). The research hypotheses have been formulated to examine key concepts concerning the effect of advertising on consumer responses across cultures. The operation of cross-cultural research has raised a number of different types of equivalents that need to be considered in order to reduce the cultural biases which might affect the results. The issue of cross-cultural equivalence will be presented in the next chapter.

Table 3.5 Testing the Objectives and Hypotheses



CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the process and methodologies used in this study. It is divided into four major parts in the following sections. Section 4.2 describes the process of research design in a systematic approach. Section 4.3 presents the procedure of the questionnaire survey. Section 4.4 addresses methodological issues concerning in cross-cultural research, including the “*emic*” versus “*etic*” perspectives, and the methods for achieving cross-cultural equivalence and comparability in this research. Section 4.5 draws a summary.

4.2 The Research Design

The major consideration for the process of research design is to test the developed hypotheses and design a research programme which will allow cross-cultural comparison to be systematic, scientific and methodically analysed.

The basic research process, structure and methodological definitions used in this study are illustrated in Figure 4.1 (derived from Sekaran, 1992). The work involved eight elements and was conducted in two phases. In Figure 4.1, the initial phase relevant to the research process was described in Chapters 1, 2, 3 and most of this was discussed in previous chapters, including observation, preliminary data gathering, problem definition, and the conception of the theoretical framework and the hypotheses. The second

phase relevant to the research design (see Figure 4.1) focuses on the methodological aspects, including purpose of the study, unit of analysis, sampling design, data collection, and measurement and measures. The step of the data analysis is interpreted in Chapter 6.

As indicated in Chapter 3, two forms of the data collection methodologies (advertising content analysis and the questionnaire survey) are required to establish a consistent programme to test the hypotheses across cultures. Both approaches have their relevant methodologies which require separate discussion. This section begins with the discussion of the purpose of the study in this research in general, followed by elaboration of the design in Figure 4.1 by classifying based on the two main data-collection methods: advertising content analysis and the questionnaire survey. As advertising content analysis involves a specific structure and process (see Figure 5.1), it is, therefore, described in a separate chapter (see Chapter 5) in order to establish an integrated programme to interpret it more clearly.

The discussion relevant to the “unit of analysis”, “sampling design”, “data collection”, and “measurement and measures” in Figure 4.1 is focused on in the questionnaire survey method first described in the Section 4.3.

4.2.1 Purpose of the study

This research possesses the nature of fundamental research since it investigates in a general sense the key issues underlying advertising and consumer behaviour in comparison with British and Chinese cultures. It seeks to add to the general body of knowledge and understanding of phenomena and problems in the field of international advertising. The results also provide valuable insights for enhancing advertisers' and marketers' understanding of the important issues in cross-cultural advertising.

The purpose of this study, therefore, can be classified as descriptive and hypothesis testing.

The descriptive nature of this study is essential to many research situations in order to present quantitative data in a meaningful form. This approach will be used to interpret the data analysis for the key issues.

Hypothesis testing is undertaken in order to explain the nature of certain relationships, or establish the differences among groups or the independence of two or more factors in a situation. This research attempts to explain, through hypothesis testing, the relationships between the variables that are involved in cultural values, advertising appeals, and attitudes towards advertising in general between the two countries: UK and China. The hypotheses not only intend to identify the similarities and/or differences between the two countries' young adults and advertising content, but also attempt to assess the cross-cultural applicability of using Larkin's attitudinal scale. The research hypotheses for this study have been identified in Chapter 3.

4.3 Questionnaire Survey

The questionnaire contains three sections. The first section of the questionnaire consists of 16 questions regarding general information of advertising exposure in British and Chinese youth markets. The second section of the questionnaire examines the consumers' attitudes towards advertising in general by using Larkin's attitudinal scale. The final part of the questionnaire tests consumers' emotional responses towards the different advertising emotional appeals by using Plutchik's Mood Rating scale.

The discussion, as mentioned earlier, of the questionnaire survey method will be considered according to the process of research design illustrated in Figure 4.1 and discussed in the following separate sub-sections.

4.3.1 Unit of Analysis

In this research, the unit of analysis involved two types of samples: magazine advertisements (advertising content analysis, see Chapter 5 in detail) and individuals (questionnaire survey). This section focuses on the individuals selected from the UK and China. Since the data were collected from each individual to measure the in responses towards advertising appeals and attitudes towards advertising, each response was treated as an individual data source in the analyses.

Sample Size

Sample size refers to the number of elements to be included in the study. As suggested by Malhotra (1996), for an exploratory research design, such as that using qualitative research, the sample size is typically small. For descriptive surveys, large samples are required. However, if sophisticated analysis of the data using multivariate techniques is required, the sample size should be large. In general, there should be at least five to ten times as many observations as there are variables (Malhotra, 1996). There were eight variables on the Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale and twenty variables on the attitudinal scale in the questionnaire survey. Sample sizes, therefore, of 150 for Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale and 300 for the attitudinal scale in each of the selected cities were appropriate for each country study. The total sample from both countries consisted of 578 responses for Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale and of 1,015 responses for the attitudinal scale. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 present the sample structure for each scale in the UK and China.

Table 4.1 Sample Structure for Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale in the UK and China

Sample groups	No. in the sample	No. of actual respondents	Percentage of respondents confirmed to defined sample size
Xiamen, China	150	142	94.7%
Tainjin, China	150	140	93.3%
London, UK	150	146	97.3%
Leicester, UK	150	150	100.0%
Total	600	578	96.3%

Table 4.2 Sample Structure for Attitudinal Scale in the UK and China

Sample groups	No. in the sample	No. of actual respondents	Percentage of respondents confirmed to defined sample size
Xiamen, China	300	300	100.0%
Tainjin, China	300	297	99.0%
London, UK	300	208	69.3%
Leicester, UK	300	210	70.0%
Total	1200	1015	84.6%

Response Rate

Response rate is an important way to evaluate the integrity of survey data. It refers to the percentage of the valid sample that participates in the research by completing an interview or survey. A high response rate, and thus a low nonresponse rate, generally indicates that there are no meaningful differences between those who responded to the survey and those who did not (Davis, 1997). Response rates vary across data collection techniques, such as personal interviews, telephone interviews, mail surveys, and so on. There are no certain rules determining a standard for a minimum response rate in research practice (Davis 1997; Fowler Jr., 1993; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). Yu and Cooper (1983) analysed 93 published surveys

and found that the response rate for personal interviews average 82 percent, telephone interviews average 72 percent and mail surveys average 47 percent. As Table 4.1 indicates, the total number of 600 selected in the sampling frame, responded samples was 578, which gave a 96.3% ratio of representatives. In Table 4.2, the total number of 1200 selected in the sampling frame, responded samples were 1015, which gave an 84.6% ratio of representatives. The results of the high response rate for this study were supported.

4.3.2 Sampling Selection

Individual Sampling

The target population for the questionnaire survey for this research was young adults, aged 18-24 years old, in the UK and China. Given time and cost constraints, a non-probability convenience sample from undergraduate students majoring in business at universities was chosen. The use of university student populations is believed to be similar with respect to most Chinese new-generations and British young adults. Furthermore, Ramaprasad and Thurwanger (1998) discovered that by using student populations there were no considerable differences between students' attitudes towards advertising in general compared with other cross-sections of the overall population. It was considered acceptable, therefore, for the questionnaire to be carried out by undergraduate students at universities in four large metropolitan areas: Xiamen, and Tainjin in China and Leicester, and London in the UK.

Finding the respondents to explore any of the questions in the People's Republic of China is further complicated by the enormous size and regional diversity of the country. Although people in mainland China are now familiar with surveys due to the increase in marketing research into China's markets,

the history of government control on surveys and public opinion polls makes respondents inexperienced with surveys (Polly *et al.*, 1990). Beijing was selected initially as one of the sample areas. In early 1998, locating any contacts in China had been done through colleagues, the Postgraduate Office and the International Students Union at De Montfort University, the Chinese Embassy in London, friends in Taipei, Taiwan, and the Internet. Many refusals were received during a long waiting period. In the end, two Chinese MA marketing students eventually agreed to administer the questionnaires in their hometown - Xiamen, Fujian, in China. In November 1998, a contact in Taipei, Taiwan, and a Chinese member of staff at De Montfort University were able to assist in conducting the questionnaires in Beijing, China. Eventually, the Chinese member of staff at De Montfort University was chosen to administer the survey in Beijing because of more positive effects on the procedures of administering the questionnaire. The resource from Taipei, Taiwan, therefore, was turned down. Unfortunately, this Chinese member of staff left De Montfort University in January 1999 and had neither contacted nor been tracked to fulfil his promise. At this point, the work of finding respondents in Beijing had to start again - the timing was critical. In May 1999, Beijing University eventually turned down the survey. Although they cited difficulties in obtaining permission from their Educational Ministry, this might also have been due to attitudes towards the sensitivity generated following the bombing of the Chinese Embassy in Serbia. In the meantime, a professor from Tainjin University was visiting De Montfort University and suggested that it might be easier to do the questionnaire in Tainjin. Tainjin is located to the Southeast of Beijing. As Beijing, China's capital, is subjected to the strictest government control and the government control over "foreign-related" interflow of information, conducting surveys in Beijing's universities was a sensitive issue.

Tainjin is near to Beijing and is one of four municipality cities in China. It is likely to be less free politically and although prosperous, less so than cities in special economic zones. Xiamen is a port located in southeastern China.

Xiamen not only is a special economic zone, but also one of China's wealthiest port cities. It is close to, and familiar with, the Westernised Hong Kong treatment of advertising and capitalistic-like freedoms in that part of China. Tainjin and Xiamen (See the map of China in Figure 4.2), therefore, were chosen to represent the most prosperous and less politically sensitive parts of China and, therefore, suitable for comparison with London and Leicester (See the map of UK in Figure 4.3).

Magazine Advertisements Sampling for the Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale

For Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale in the third section of the questionnaire, a total of 16 emotional advertisements from both countries were selected to examine customers' responses to advertising emotional appeals. Emotional advertisements could be selected from a variety of product categories such as shampoo, soap, body lotion, sanitary pads, toothpaste, detergent, fabric rinse, and dish-washing liquid. These products are selected because it is possible to prepare an advertisement with mostly emotions and arousal effects (Hong *et al.*, 1987). It was difficult to choose appropriate 16 emotional advertisements from such a variety of advertisements from both countries' magazines. Initially, the target adverts were narrowed down based on above criteria, such as adverts contained shampoo, soap, body lotion, detergent, and so on. The final 16 advertisements were selected with help and discussion from members of the academic marketing department at De Montfort University. Consideration of eight scales based on the Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale was given. The eight chosen Chinese emotional advertisements contained descriptions of soaps, jewellery, personal cleaning, skin care, shampoo, and make-up products. The eight chosen British emotional advertisements contained the products of watches, clothes, make-up products, perfume, and drinks. A full copy of each advertisement is reproduced in Appendices 1 (UK) and 2 (China).

Figure 4.2 Map of China

Figure 3. China: Special Economic Zones



Source: http://www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/middle_east_and_asia/china_specialec_97.jpg

Figure 4.3 Map of UK



Source: <http://www.ukguide.org/ukmap>

4.3.3 Data-collection Method – Questionnaire Survey

In descriptive research, the primary data can be obtained from three basic methods, namely a questionnaire survey, observation and personal interviews. A standardised questionnaire or form will ensure the comparability of data, increase speed and accuracy of recording, and facilitate data processing (Malhotra, 1996)

4.3.3.1 Questionnaire Construction

Two language versions of the questionnaire were designed in both English and Chinese for use in this study. The British subjects used an English version, and the Chinese subjects used a Chinese version. The questionnaire was first constructed in English. The back-translation technique was used for the Chinese version of the questionnaire. The procedure of back-translation will be discussed in Section 4.4.2.2 on measurement equivalence. A full copy of the two-version questionnaire is reproduced in Appendices 3 (UK) and 4 (China).

The Questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section elicited demographic information and general views on advertising exposure. The second section asked the respondents' opinions regarding attitudes towards advertising in general. The final section asked the respondents' feelings about the different magazine advertisements in terms of emotional appeals by using Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale.

Attitudes Towards Advertising in General

The questions of attitudes towards advertising contained 20 statements about advertising and employed a five-point Likert-type response scale with

anchors ranging from strongly agrees to strongly disagree. These statements were designed to elicit information concerning four attitudinal areas:

1. Economic factors in advertising,
2. Social factors in advertising,
3. Ethics factors in advertising,
4. Regulation factors in advertising.

Seven items assessed overall economic factors in advertising; seven items focused on social factors in advertising; three items related to ethics factors in advertising; and three items related to regulation factors in advertising. All 20-items were identified in Table 3.3. The attitudinal scale was more fully addressed in Section 3.4 in Chapter 3.

Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale

In order to examine the response to emotion appeals, Plutchik's abbreviated Mood Rating Scale was used (Plutchik, 1980). The degree of emotional arousal for each advertisement tested was evaluated by a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very strongly) in eight different advertisements from each country. The eight representative adjectives used here were happy, fearful, pleasant, angry, interested, disgusted, sad and surprised. Plutchik's scale was more fully discussed in Section 3.3 in Chapter 3

4.3.3.2 Questionnaire Survey Implementation

The data were collected based on a cross-sectional study, such that data were gathered at a single point in time (Sekaran, 1992). For practical reasons, at sections one and two of the questionnaire, a total of 600

respondents in China were approached in December 1998 and June 1999. Of these, 597, or some 99.5%, completed the questions. In the UK, the same number of respondents was approached in May and October 1999. Of these, 418, or some 70%, completed the questionnaire. In the final section of the questionnaire, a total of 150 respondents from each city of the two countries were approached at the same time as conducting section one and two of the questionnaire with different respondents. The completed responses in the third section of the survey had the following breakdown: 142 from Xiamen, 140 from Tainjin, 210 from Leicester, and 208 from London. The response rate from China was 94%, and a rate of 98.7% was obtained from the UK for the final section of the questionnaire. Although the target population was aged 18-24, some aged over 24 were likely to complete the questionnaire because of the collection method. Therefore, in the questionnaire, the respondents were asked about their age group in order to separate inappropriate questionnaires.

As the population focused on this study was in the youth market, therefore, the age group was selected between 18-24 years old (see Section 1.4), and the sample excluded anyone aged over 25 years old. Thus, the total number of valid respondents from China was 583 in section one and two of the questionnaire, and 370 from the UK. Table 4.3 presents the demographic profiles of respondents between 18-24 years old for section one and two of the questionnaire. As shown in Table 4.3, 61.1% (n=356) of the Chinese sample were male, while 38.9% (n=227) were female. In the UK, 44.6% (n=165) were male, while 55.4% (n=205) were female.

The valid respondents in the final section for Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale were 281 from China and 263 from the UK in total. Table 4.4 presents the demographic profiles of respondents between 18-24 years old for the section three of questionnaire. The respondents were as follows: in China 51.2% (n=144) were male, while 48.8% (n=137) were female; in the UK, 40.7% (n=107) were male, while 59.3% (n=156) were female (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.3 Demographic Profile of Respondents aged 18 – 24 in Section One and Two of Questionnaire

China	Xiamen	Tainjin	Total	Percent
Total	288	295	583	
Male	173	183	356	61.1
Female	115	112	227	38.9
UK	Leicester	London	Total	Percent
Total	201	169	370	
Female	99	66	165	44.6
Male	102	103	205	55.4

Table 4.4 Demographic Profile of Respondents aged 18-24 in Section Three of Questionnaire

China	Xiamen	Tainjin	Total	Percent
Total	142	139	281	
Male	75	69	144	51.2
Female	67	70	137	48.8
UK	Leicester	London	Total	Percent
Total	139	124	263	
Female	56	51	107	40.7
Male	83	73	156	59.3

In each country, the entire questionnaire was administered during academic session class time with instructions to carefully read and answer each section of the survey. The questionnaire contained instructions about how to complete the questionnaire in detail. In order to ensure correct completion, the researcher, with the assistance of other supervisors, also gave a brief introduction before allocation of questionnaires. All the questionnaires were collected immediately after the respondents completed them. This technique

has been recommended for convenience and assuring proper response rates in developing countries (Douglas and Craig, 1983).

In China, the researcher in person administered the entire questionnaire during her visit in Xiamen and Tainjin in December 1998 and in June 1999. In Xiamen, except for section three of the questionnaire, three hundred students were divided into two groups to complete their responses in two classrooms at the same time. The researcher gave a brief introduction to each group before issuing the questionnaire and asked the respondents not to discuss anything during the completing of questionnaires. Three senior lecturers from Xiamen University assisted in the administration of the questionnaire. The same procedure for the administration of the questionnaire was utilised in Tainjin.

In the UK, except for section three of the questionnaire, two senior lecturers from the Department of Marketing at De Montfort University in Leicester assisted in administration of the questionnaire in their classes. Two other senior lecturers in the Faculty of Business from the two universities in London assisted in administration of the questionnaire in their classes. The first and second section of the questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes complete. The procedure for the final part of the questionnaire is addressed in the next section.

Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale Implementation

This section discusses the administration of the third part of the questionnaire survey. Subjects were first exposed to the eight different advertisements in each country, and then they were asked to indicate the degree and type of emotions they had experienced. Each advertisement was given 30 seconds viewing time, and then the subjects answered the question for each advertisement. This procedure was repeated until all eight advertisements had been viewed. The whole procedure took approximately 10 minutes to complete. Each advertisement was presented using an overhead projector.

In order to ensure each advertisement could be viewed clearly, all subjects in China were divided into four groups to conduct the questionnaire. The researcher first explained the purpose of this survey and asked all the subjects to answer the questions without discussion with each other. This was followed by a demonstration to ensure that everyone was able to complete the questionnaire. The same procedure was administered in the UK with the assistance of senior lecturers from De Montfort University in Leicester and the two universities in London.

4.3.4 Measurement

This section examines how the proposed methodology can ensure reasonably good measures. The two main criteria for testing the goodness of measures are validity and reliability. While validity is concerned with whether an instrument is measuring the right concept, reliability is concerned with stability and consistency in measurement. In other words, validity and reliability are concerned with techniques for reducing measurement errors.

Measurement is a procedure in which a researcher assigns numerals, to empirical properties (variables) according to rules (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1993). A numeral has no quantitative meaning unless one gives it such a meaning. The numerals are formed as numbers or other symbols which can be categorised into observable and measurable elements for comparison, evaluation, and the assessment of relations between various properties. Once the numerals that are given quantitative meaning become numbers, they can be used for mathematical and statistical techniques for the purpose of description, explanation, and prediction. Another concept used to define measurement is that of rules. A rule specifies the procedure one uses to assign numerals or numbers to objects or events (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1993). Rules are the most significant component of the measurement

procedure because they determine the quality of measurement. Poor rules make measurement meaningless and lack an empirical basis. Measurement, therefore, is the assignment of numerals or numbers to objects, events, or variables according to rules.

The level of measurements used in this study was mainly a nominal scale (content analysis of magazine advertisements and general information of advertising exposure in the UK and China) and an interval scale (emotional responses and attitudes towards advertising in general). Items of measurement were investigated for reliability by using Cronbach's alpha to test internal consistency (Malhotra, 1996; Sekaran, 1992). Further refinement is accomplished by Principal Components factor analysis to examine construct validity on the subject of attitudes towards advertising in general.

Reliability

It is important to yield useful, accurate and applicable information by examining the reliability and validity of any measures. Reliability concerns the extent to which a survey question or other measurement procedure yields the same results over repeated trials (Davis, 1997). As random error produces inconsistency, leading to lower reliability, reliability assesses the extent to which measures are free from random error and yields consistent results over multiple administrations. If random error is equal to zero, the measure is perfectly reliable.

The reliability of an attitude scale refers to how consistent or stable the ratings generated by the scale are likely to be. Indeed, unless a scale is reasonably consistent, it cannot be viewed as a true, trustworthy measure of whatever it purports to measure. In this sense, reliability is a necessary, although not sufficient, condition for validity.

Scale reliability can be measured through several different criteria. The most

common approaches for assessing reliability include test-retest, alternative-forms, and internal consistency methods (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1997; Malhotra, 1996). The test-retest and alternative-forms methods can be used to determine the reliability of individual survey questions. These two methods obviously depend on both the opportunity and additional resources to carry it out. In the case of this study both the impossibility of assembling respondents on several occasions and resource limitations prevented their application. As an alternative, internal consistency is used to assess the reliability of a summated scale where several items are summed to form a total score (e.g. attitudes towards advertising in general). A more rigorous and popular measure of internal consistency reliability is called Cronbach's alpha, or coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The value of coefficient alpha can range from zero (no internal consistency) to one (complete internal consistency). A value of 0.60 or less generally indicates unsatisfactory internal consistency reliability. A figure larger than 0.70 is deemed to be sufficient to conclude that the data gathered is reliable (Nunnally, 1978).

Research shows that data reliability varies from country to country. This reduces the precision of estimation, which reduces the power of statistical tests (Davis *et al.*, 1981; Parameswaran and Yaprak, 1987; Sekaran, 1983). Therefore, internal consistency reliability of all constructs in this study was assessed in each country, which tested a general construct concept. Moreover, the fact that the same items were utilised in calculating the reliability coefficients for all constructs in both countries provides additional evidence of construct and measure equivalence (Agarwal, 1993).

Validity

As reliability is a prerequisite for validity, the high reliability and internal consistency are necessary conditions for construct validity. However, it is noted that if data is reliable, it may or may not be valid (Churchill, 1995).

Validity concerns the extent to which survey questions or measurement

procedures actually measures what it is intended to measure (Davis, 1997). Alternatively, it is the extent to which the scale fully captures all aspects of the construct to be measured. Perfect validity requires that there be no measurement error. Assessing the validity of attitude scales is a complex task. There are several different types of validity tests that are used to test the goodness of fit. Validity is commonly determined in one of three ways: content, criterion, or construct (Malhotra, 1996). For the purpose of testing validity in this research, only content validity (content analysis) and construct validity (attitudes towards advertising in general) were involved.

Construct validity testifies as to how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fits the theories around which the test is designed (Sekaran, 1992). Construct validity of an attitude measure can be assessed quantitatively by computing its correlations with measures of other constructs that one would expect to be strongly associated with attitudes, and measures of construct that one would not expect to be closely tied to the attitudes (Parasuraman, 1991). In order to explore the multidimensionality of scale items of the construct of attitudes towards advertising in general, further refinements can be accomplished by Principal Component factor analysis to test construct validity (see Section 6.4). Each item in the construct of Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale is a single construct scale based on a small number of well-established items and, therefore, no factor analysis is utilised.

4.4 Cross-Cultural Research Issues

In International marketing research the possible cultural biases and linguistic problems which affect research results have been raised. In order to reduce such threats, a number of different types of equivalences should be taken into account when conducting cross-cultural research or cross-national research for comparative purposes. Comparability or equivalence in cross-

cultural research requires that data should have, as far as possible, the same meaning or interpretation, and the same level of accuracy, precision of measurement, or reliability in all countries and cultures (Douglas and Craig, 1983). The need of comparability or equivalence gives rise to a number of important methodological issues in cross-cultural research design such as the *emic* versus the *etic* dilemma, together with functional, conceptual issues, the use of research instrument, sample, data collection methods, and data analysis (Douglas and Craig, 1983; Green and Langeard, 1979; Leung, 1989; Yu *et al.*, 1993). The following sections will first address the *etic* and the *emic* approaches, followed by discussion of the issues on cross-cultural equivalence for this research.

4.4.1 The Etic and the Emic Approaches

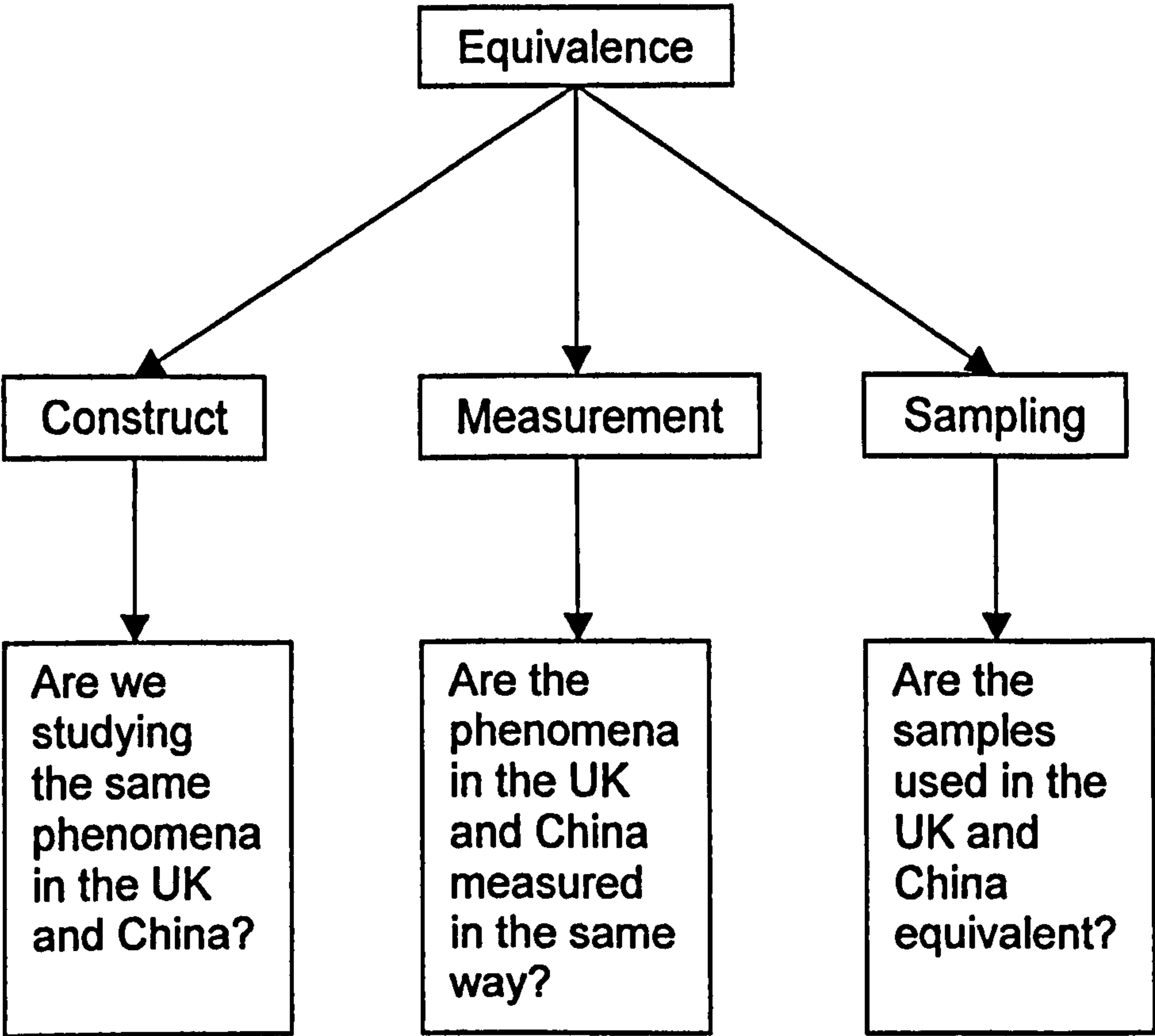
The diversity of cultural biases and linguistic problems implies that different behavioural and attitudinal phenomena may occur or be relevant to a specific problem. This has raised the issue of whether similar research designs can be used or are relevant in different environments. Consequently, it requires that a research design needs to be relevant to the individual country studied. In the social sciences, typically researchers use the *etic* and the *emic* approaches to determine the cross-cultural equivalence of measures (Berry, 1969; Pike, 1966). The *emic* perspective holds that attitudinal or behavioural phenomena are expressed in a unique way in each culture, and best understood in their own cultures. In contrast, the *etic* perspective is primarily concerned with universal attitudinal and behavioural concepts (Douglas and Craig, 1983). In general, the *emic* approach is a "culture-bound" measure, and the *etic* approach is a "culture-free" measure. Ryan *et al.* (1999) have argued that the use of the *emic* approach is often impractical because of the need to keep methods and measures standard worldwide. Yet, there are means of assessing instrument equivalence that can highlight when and how

a measure is psychometrically deficient when imposed on other cultures. However, an important purpose of multinational research is to find similarities or differences among and between populations of interest to the researcher (Mullen, 1995). It assumes that identifying the similarities across countries is of most interest to multinational marketers. Consequently, the prime emphasis of this research is to adopt an *etic* philosophy in which measures can be comparable across countries or cultures. In order to integrate emic studies into a derived etic philosophy (Berry, 1969 and 1989), it is necessary to examine the various aspects of the data collection process and establish their equivalencies. Three main types of equivalencies will be addressed in the following sections to achieve the comparability and equivalence in cross-cultural research (Berry, 1969; Douglas and Craig, 1983; Sekaran, 1983).

4.4.2 Data Equivalence

The importance of generating data that are comparable from one country to another suggests that the equivalence of several aspects of the data collection process needs to be examined. According to Douglas and Craig (1983), equivalence can be categorised into three dimensions: construct equivalence, measurement equivalence and sampling equivalence. Figure 4.4 presents a brief description of the three critical types of equivalences related to this research. Each of the equivalence concepts will be addressed in detail in the following sections.

Figure 4.4 Types of Equivalencies



Source: adapted from Kumar, 2000.

4.4.2.1 Construct Equivalence

Construct equivalence deals with the question of whether the concepts underlying the study constructs exist or are expressed in similar ways in the two chosen countries (Berry, 1969; Douglas and Craig, 1983; Malhotra, 1996). Construct equivalence is comprised of functional equivalence, conceptual equivalence and category equivalence. The following paragraphs discuss the relevant issues on functional and conceptual equivalence for this research.

Functional Equivalence

Functional equivalence examines whether a given concept or behaviour serves the same role or function in the countries studied and is relevant at the macrocultural level (Berry, 1969; Douglas and Craig, 1983). It concerns the function of the product or service that is being researched and not the method used in collecting the information. It is important that different countries that are being studied must have the same perception or use for the product that is being researched. For example, a bicycle may play a transportation function in developing countries, such as India and China; in more developed countries, a bicycle may play a recreational vehicle function, such as the UK and US, but a bicycle provides a basic mode of transportation in the Netherlands. Through the literature review and informal interviews with some respondents in the UK and China, it was established that the function of magazines and advertising is the same in the UK as in China. Although structurally different, the function of magazines and advertising is to accomplish the same objectives: to obtain information; to establish awareness of products and services; to promote products and services; to influence purchasing decisions and to be entertaining.

Conceptual Equivalence

Conceptual equivalence deals specifically with whether individual interpretation of objects, stimuli or behaviour is the same in different countries and cultures (Douglas and Craig, 1983). The focus in this aspect of construct equivalence is on individual variations in attitudes and behaviour rather than societal norms and behaviour (Kumar, 2000). Conceptual equivalence exists when the meanings of research materials (stimuli or concepts) are similar across cultures to be sampled. This can be achieved by a careful process of survey translation equivalence (Berry, 1980). Translation equivalence will be addressed in the next section.

4.4.2.2 Measurement Equivalence

Measurement equivalence deals with the scales used for measuring various aspects of the research study (Douglas and Craig, 1983). In a cross-cultural study, researchers need to modify the units of measurement in order to establish measurement equivalence. It is important that data collected from various regions is comparable, otherwise it could lead to the researcher drawing erroneous conclusions. Measurement equivalence relates to establishing equivalence in terms of procedures used to measure concepts or attitudes (Crimp and Wright, 1995). Measurement equivalence is comprised of calibration equivalence, translation equivalence, and metric equivalence.

Calibration Equivalence

Calibration equivalence is to do with the calibration system used in measurement when designing a cross-cultural research instrument. This should include monetary units, measures of weight, distance and volume, and perceptual cues like colour, shape, or form. In this study, calibration equivalence did not have objective firm data such as financial amounts to be addressed. Moreover, the most universal survey sampling problem in foreign countries is the language barrier. Therefore, the prime focus on the measurement equivalence for this research is translation and metric equivalence since they are more relevant and a more difficult part of the cross-cultural survey.

Translation Equivalence

Translation equivalence is concerned with the research instrument being translated in such a way that respondents in all countries involved in the study understand it. This requires that the instrument should also contain equivalent meaning in each research context (Douglas and Craig 1983). The translation must be equivalent to the original language in which the

instrument was developed. However, it often meets difficulties with respect to idiomatic equivalence, grammatical and syntactical equivalence, and experiential equivalence (Yu *et al.*, 1993). Thus, equivalent concepts may not exist in all languages. Marketing researchers use three different techniques, such as back translation, parallel translation, and decentering, to help finding out translation errors in order to generate an equivalence instrument (Cateora, 1996).

The most frequently used methods for establishing equivalence in cross-cultural research are back translation and the use of bilingual translators. In back translation the questionnaire is translated from the base language by a bilingualist whose native language is the language into which the questionnaire is being translated. This version is then retranslated back into the original language by a bilingualist whose native language is the initial or base language (Malhotra *et al.*, 1996). It suggests the process of back translation needs to be repeated several times in order to develop equivalent questionnaires, however, this process can be expensive, cumbersome and time-consuming (Wharton *et al.*, 1991). An alternative procedure is parallel translation which can be used to overcome the problem of commonly used idioms in some languages during the back translations. This process requires that more than two bilingual translators are used for the back translation; the results are compared, differences discussed, and the most appropriate translation selected. The decentering technique is a successive iteration process of translation and retranslating of a questionnaire, each time by a different translator (Cateora, 1996). This approach is the most costly and time-consuming. As cost and time were significant constraints, the back-translation technique was applied to ensure the translation equivalence for this research. The original questionnaire was first written in English. The Chinese version of the questionnaire was drafted with assistance from bilingual experts fluent in both English and Chinese. The two bilingual speakers have lived in both countries at least 15 years. This helped to reduce the possibility of culture sensitivity during the procedure of translation.

The questionnaire was first translated into Chinese and then back-translated into English to enhance translation equivalence (Douglas and Craig, 1983; Hui and Triandis, 1985). In order to reduce the problem of idiomatic equivalence, grammatical and syntactical equivalence, and experiential equivalence, the two versions of questionnaire were further modified after pre-testing on a group of MA students both in PRC China and the UK. The final versions of English and Chinese questionnaires ensured that there were no inconsistencies between the original questionnaire and the re-translated version. Through pre-testing, it was discovered that the subjects did not have any problems in filling out the questionnaire and in avoiding ambiguity and error.

Metric Equivalence

Metric equivalence deals with the psychometric properties of the measures that exhibit the similar coherence or structure across the nations sampled (Mullen 1995). Metric equivalence requires the scoring or scalar equivalence of the measure used. The scales used in different countries may vary depending on the culture and education level of the respondents, because education shapes the way people in a certain country think or act. Education can also have a great impact on how receptive the people are to foreign products and concepts. For example, it may use pictorial scales if the population is mainly illiterate.

Likert and semantic differential scales have both been widely used in cross-cultural research and attitude measurement. Albaum *et al.*, (1987) concluded that the Likert scale format tends to have *etic* properties, whereas the semantic scale exhibits as *emic* properties. Typically, in the UK or other English speaking countries five-point or seven-point scales are commonly used. However, it has been seen that people from China, Japan, and Hong Kong have a tendency to use the middle category in the scale. Hence, it is suggested that scales should have even number of categories when they are being administered in those countries. However, the research of Baird *et al.*,

(1991) concluded that a five-point or seven-point scale is commonly used in China and has achieved valid data. Thus, the five-point scale was used in this study for ease of comparison.

In addition, cross-cultural research should also ensure equivalence of the response to a given measure in different countries. For instance, most managers in Latin American countries tend to exaggerate their income (Kumar, 2000). The researcher needs to ensure whether the data from respondents in different countries present the same meaning and interpretation.

Metric equivalence can only be examined after the data have been collected. Metric equivalence exists by demonstrating that dimensionality and reliability is similar across countries (Andrews *et al.*, 1994). There are two approaches for examining scalar equivalence or response set bias: Multiple Methods of Measurement and Profile Analysis (Mullen, 1995). Multiple Methods of Measurement is rarely used because it is time-consuming and expensive (Douglas and Craig, 1983). Morris and Pavett (1992) propose Profile Analysis as a means of examining metric equivalence and analysing response set bias. This involves calculating the mean for each measure and plotting it on a graph. The points are connected by lines. If these lines are not parallel it can be taken as an indication that differences between two data sets are not caused by systematic response bias. However, even if the lines are parallel, the differences between means could be caused by real differences and not necessarily by response set bias (Kumar, 2000; Morris and Pavett, 1992; Mullen, 1995).

Mullen (1995) stated that there have been no diagnostic methods available to assess cross-national differences in scalar equivalence with confidence. However, he proposed two empirical diagnostic techniques for evaluating the measurement equivalence in cross-national research: Optimal Scaling and Multiple Group LISREL. Mullen (1995) demonstrated these approaches on

secondary data from a survey of Japanese and US workers and compared the results of each approach. His study determined that optimal scaling is useful for exploring scalar equivalence, allowing researchers to estimate and compare, item by item, the underlying metrics of ordinal measures across populations. Multiple Group LISREL is purported to be a useful step for determining whether the same measurement model may be operated in different populations. One of the major weaknesses of using optimal scaling to examine the equivalence of individual items is that it only provides “rules of thumb” instead of actual statistical tests (Myer *et al.*, 2000).

Metric equivalence and stability of the relations among constructs are viewed as necessary prerequisites for testing mean differences on constructs across countries (Berry 1980; Irvine and Carroll, 1980, Triandis, 1982). However, part of the present study attempts to examine whether the constructs of attitudes towards advertising in general are applicable across countries or are culturally bound. This study, therefore, is not to test consistent scoring and scalar equivalence by using LISREL technique.

4.4.2.3 Sampling Equivalence

Sampling equivalence concerns the equivalence of the information collected from the sample. The emphasis is not on the equivalence of the method used or the profile from which the sample has been drawn, but rather on the equivalence of the information collected from the sample. It is important to ensure the samples drawn from different countries are as closely comparable as possible (Douglas and Craig, 1983). Two aspects need to be taken into account to ensure the sampling equivalence. The first issue is to decide who should be contacted for the survey (the sampling unit). The second issue is concerned with the extent to which the sample is representative of the population. It means that the subjects were chosen because they were

involved in the decision-making process. This implementation often involves drawing matched samples from identifiable subgroups of the population, e.g. students or housewives. This study involved two types of samples: magazine advertisements and individuals from the UK and China. In order to enhance the homogeneity of respondents across cultures (Douglas and Craig, 1988), one type of sample for this study was drawn from university students in each country. These convenience samples were undergraduates majoring in business and were of similar ages. It should be noted that these samples are not representative of the populations of the UK and China. However, they are relatively homogeneous in a matched-samples sense (i.e. in terms of education, area of study, and age) and are considered appropriate for cross-cultural theory testing (Douglas and Craig, 1983; Irvine and Carroll, 1980). Additionally, these samples present the most promising market segments in both countries.

Another type of sample, advertisements, was chosen from three aspects of magazines in each country. Initially, the magazines were selected according to the largest circulation between 1996 and 1997 from each country. It was, however, difficult to obtain accurate statistical data regarding the circulation of magazines in China. In order to achieve the maximum sampling equivalence, three magazines in China were selected by interviewing Chinese students at De Montfort University, and this was compared with the information gathered from university students from Xiamen and Tainjin. The sample of advertisements was constructed as follows: in China, the first one, Youth Generation, is aimed at a relatively younger public; the second one, Nu You is a women's magazine, the third one is Overseas Readers, which is targeted as a general interest magazine. The same criteria were taken into account when selecting the UK magazines: FHM, Cosmopolitan and Reader's Digest. As a result, selecting advertisements from these magazines lead to a relatively broad target youth group within a certain period. Thus, sampling equivalence exists in this study.

Overall, in establishing construct equivalence, the question most relevant to this study is whether the concepts underlying the study constructs exist or are expressed in similar ways in the two chosen countries: UK and China. No direct evidence of construct validity for this entire concept (attitudes towards advertising in general) exists in the UK and China, but previous cross-cultural studies have found that the basic and similar attitude surveys of these types are applicable across cultures (see Chapter 2 and Section 3.6). The study, therefore, assumes that the same constructs as those used in the US are applicable. This approach might be criticised for being *pseudo-etic* (Triandis *et al.*, 1973; Triandis and Marin, 1983). Green and White (1976, p.83) suggest that “results obtained from such an instrument could provide some basic understanding where none existed before, or they could provide the basis for future hypotheses”. Sekaran (1983) further suggests that until the concepts developed in the US have been tested rigorously for their concept equivalence in other countries, greater concern should be focused on validity and reliability of the measure used.

4.5 Summary

In this chapter the methodologies and research design used in this study have been introduced and the various justifications have been discussed. The principle of searching cross-cultural comparability with issues on the *emic* and *etic* perspectives and data equivalence was addressed in detail. The administration of the questionnaire surveys in both the UK and China, one of the data collection methods, has been discussed. The next chapter will discuss the procedure of advertising content analysis of magazine advertisements. The results and detail of data analysis will be addressed in Chapter 6.

5.1 Introduction

Advertising content analysis is a quantitative research technique which involves specialised procedures for processing scientific data. This research technique helps people better understand advertisers' practices, specific brand advertising strategies, and the effects of advertising (Davis, 1997). The main objective of this chapter is to review the methodology applicable to the research and analysis of cultural values and the advertising appeals used in advertising content. Assael (1995) has suggested various means of identifying cultural values in consumer research, namely (1) cultural Value inventories such as Rokeach's Classification, (2) research services such as The Monitor Service, (3) observation through field studies, and (4) content analysis of a society's literature and media. The first two methods rely on surveys of consumers to determine cultural values. The third method of observation, so-called ethnography, is the most important qualitative technique which determines cultural values through field studies. However, the highly cost and time involvement, making the use of such field studies in consumer research is rare. Whereas the techniques described above measure cultural values consumers hold, content analysis measures these values as they are reflected in a culture's media and literature (Assael, 1995). Thus, this study, partly, employed content analysis to review cultural values and advertising appeals in advertising content.

The literature review of cultural values has been discussed in Section 2.8.1 in Chapter 2. This chapter mainly focuses on the methodology of advertising content analysis for the present research. Section 5.2 describes briefly the characteristics of content analysis and the setting in which advertising content analysis is most commonly used. Sections 5.3 discusses the plan

and implementation of advertising content analysis in detail. Sections 5.4 and 5.5 examine and discuss the reliability and validity of content analysis. Section 5.6 draws a summary. The results of this analysis will be addressed in the next chapter.

5.2 Definitions and Characteristics

The use of content analysis first occurred in eighteenth-century Sweden by quantitative analysis of printed material (Krippendorff, 1980). By the beginning of the twentieth-century attention increasingly focused on quantitative newspaper content analysis in the US. As a method of analysing trends in mass communication in its earlier history, content analysis emphasised the counting and frequency of themes or phrase occurrence in the content of newspapers, hymns, and riddles. As the technique has evolved, content analysis became a more theoretically oriented technique than that practised by its early proponents (Carney, 1972; Holsti, 1969; Marino *et al.*, 1989). Consequently, content analysis is now used as a formal methodology in consumer research. It has been widely applied to political science, journalism, social psychology, anthropology, education, linguistics, history, communications research, and political propaganda analysis (Krippendorff, 1980).

There is no doubt that much of the subject of the social sciences including consumer studies is in the form of verbal and symbolic behaviour. The breadth of communications that exist in the consumer field involves media advertising, printed materials, and various verbal and non-verbal messages created by a host of sources. Increasingly, content analysis has become a popular method employed for evaluating various communication forms relevant to consumer behaviour scholars (Yale and Gilly, 1988). Further evidence also shows that the popularity of content analysis dominated cross-

cultural advertising literature for decades (Samiee and Jeong, 1994). The next sub-section begins with defining content analysis, followed by a description of the characteristics of content analysis.

5.2.1 Definition

Various definitions have been given by different scholars (Berelson, 1952; Fearing, 1954; Holsti, 1969, Paisley, 1969; Pool, 1952). For example:

- Content analysis is a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication (Berelson, 1952, p. 55);
- Latent content as well as manifest content may be examined by content analysis, a series of judgements or descriptions made under specifically defined conditions by judges trained in the use of objectively defined criteria. (Fearing 1954);
- The term "content analysis" is used here to mean the scientific analysis of communications messages. The method is, broadly speaking, the "scientific method," and while being catholic in nature, it requires that the analysis be rigorous and systematic. (Holsti 1969, p. 3);
- Content analysis is a phase of information processing in which communications content is transformed through objective and systematic application of categorisation rules, into data that can be summarised and compared (Paisley, 1969, p. 133);
- Content analysis is a systematic technique for analysing message content and message handling – it is a tool for observing and analysing the overt

communication behaviour of selected communicators (Budd *et al.*, 1967, p. 2);

- Content analysis will not tell us whether a given work is good literature; it will tell us whether the style is varied. It will not tell us whether a paper is subversive; it will tell us if the contents change with party line. It will not tell us how to convince the Russians; it will tell us what the most frequent themes of Soviet propaganda are. (Lasswell, Lerner, and Pool, 1952, p. 45).

Krippendorff (1980) has criticised that Berelson's definitional requirements were either unclear or too restrictive. He argued that Berelson's definition has led many scholars to believe that latent contents are excluded from the analysis, and 'quantitative' has been similarly restrictive as qualitative methods have proven successful particularly in extracting intelligence from propaganda. By justification of Berelson's definition, Krippendorff (1980) defines content analysis as "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context". The rule of the process to be *replicable* must be explicit and applicable equally to all units of analysis. Consequently, based on the diverse definitions mentioned above, Kassarian (1977) has offered directives for the distinguishing characteristics of content analysis. These are that it must be objective, systematic, and quantitative. For the purpose of this research project, Samiee and Jeong (1994) define that content analysis as "the objective and systematic survey of any set of communications (oral, written, pictorial representations, body movements, etc.), and its quantitative representation such that the analysis might lead to attitudinal or behavioural generalisations". Several issues that have been raised are discussed separately in the following sub-section. Current application generally classified cultural values into nominal categories for the purpose of drawing inferences to analyse magazine advertisements and test hypotheses in the next Chapter.

5.2.2 Characteristics

Content analysis was first developed in the social sciences as a way of studying cultures at a distance. It can be used to measure the beliefs, values, ideologies, themes, role prescriptions, norms of behaviour, and other elements of culture through systematic analysis of its words and pictures. This kind of an observational research method is used to systematically evaluate the symbolic content of all forms of recorded communications. More specifically, content analysis works by sorting pieces of text into a system of categories based on manifest characteristics of the text and can be also analysed at many levels (image, word, roles, and so on) (Kassarjian, 1977 and 1980). It is a method focused on the analysis of the communication message itself, rather than the communicator or the audience (Kassarjian, 1977). For some researchers, “content analysis” seems to denote nothing more than counting qualities (words, attributes, and colours). In fact, this approach requires a well-formulated theoretical hypothesis, and a set of indicators which translate these values into possible mass media contents. These indicators can then be matched with a sample of texts taken from the mass media. Therefore, the requirement of content analysis stipulates that it must be objective, systematic and quantitative.

Objectivity

Objectivity refers to the process by which analytical categories are developed and used. This requires that the categories of analysis must be defined so precisely that different analysts may apply them to the same body of content and secure the same results (Berelson, 1952; Kolbe and Burnett, 1991). Content analysis must be carried out on the basis of explicitly formulated rules and procedures in order to examine the wide range of contents. Major criticism stems from the need is to eliminate and reduce personal idiosyncrasies and biases which may affect all stages of the entire procedure of content analysis (e.g. data collection, coding, analysis procedure,

interpretation of results). To avoid or reduce such bias effects, well-developed operational definitions and rules for the coding scheme must be designed precisely and well-trained independent judges used to analyse data.

Kolbe and Burnett (1991) offered guidelines for improving content analysis in the area of objectivity. Objectivity may be measured by whether

- (1) Descriptions of rules and procedures are identified for the validation of research findings and future replication,
- (2) judge training is implemented to improve interjudge and intrajudge coding reliability,
- (3) pre-testing categories and definitions are used to check the reliability of the coding process, and
- (4) Judges (or “coders”) and the author are not one and the same person, and work independently of one another. The use of coders other than the author is a primary and measurable component of objectivity.

Another concern is the number of judges used in content analysis. Most of the past studies have used two judges, according to Kolbe and Burnett (1991) who studied 28 journals published between 1978 and mid-1989. As Fleiss (1971) pointed out, the greater the number of coders, the greater the reliability because the results can be more safely generalised to a “pool of coders” and the potential for measurement error by any singular coder is smaller. Hetsroni (2000) also found the employment of a large number of coders did not result in loss of reliability. However, with constraints of cost and time, the present study employed three judges. By increasing the reliability, the procedure of coding followed the rules of measurement of objectivity outlined in the previous passages. In next section, the detail of the coding procedure is presented.

Systematic

Systematisation means that the inclusion and exclusion of communications content or analysis categories is done according to consistently applied rules (Holsti, 1969). More specifically, systematisation requires research procedures to eliminate a biased selection of communications or classification categories to suit the analyst's thesis and examine scientific problems or hypotheses (Kassarjian 1977). This means that the sampling and selection of the advertising examined in the content analysis proceed in accordance with explicit and defensible rules and that the advertising is treated and examined in exactly the same way throughout the content analysis. A further detail in the systematic approach is presented in the procedure of content analysis in next section.

Quantification

As mentioned in the previous passages, advertising content analysis is a quantitative endeavour. The requirement of quantification is that the data be amenable to statistical methods not only for the precise and parsimonious summary of the findings but also for interpretation and inference (Kassarjian, 1977). More specifically, quantification increases precision in the conclusions drawn and permits a more accurate description of findings and the relationships between themes and elements observed in the advertising.

Based on the characteristics of content analysis, the procedure of content analysis for this research is addressed in the next section.

5.3 Conducting Content Analysis

Advertising content analysis follows the sequence of steps underlying the conduct of any quantitative research study (see Figure 5.1). The process begins with the formulation of research questions or hypotheses; then the

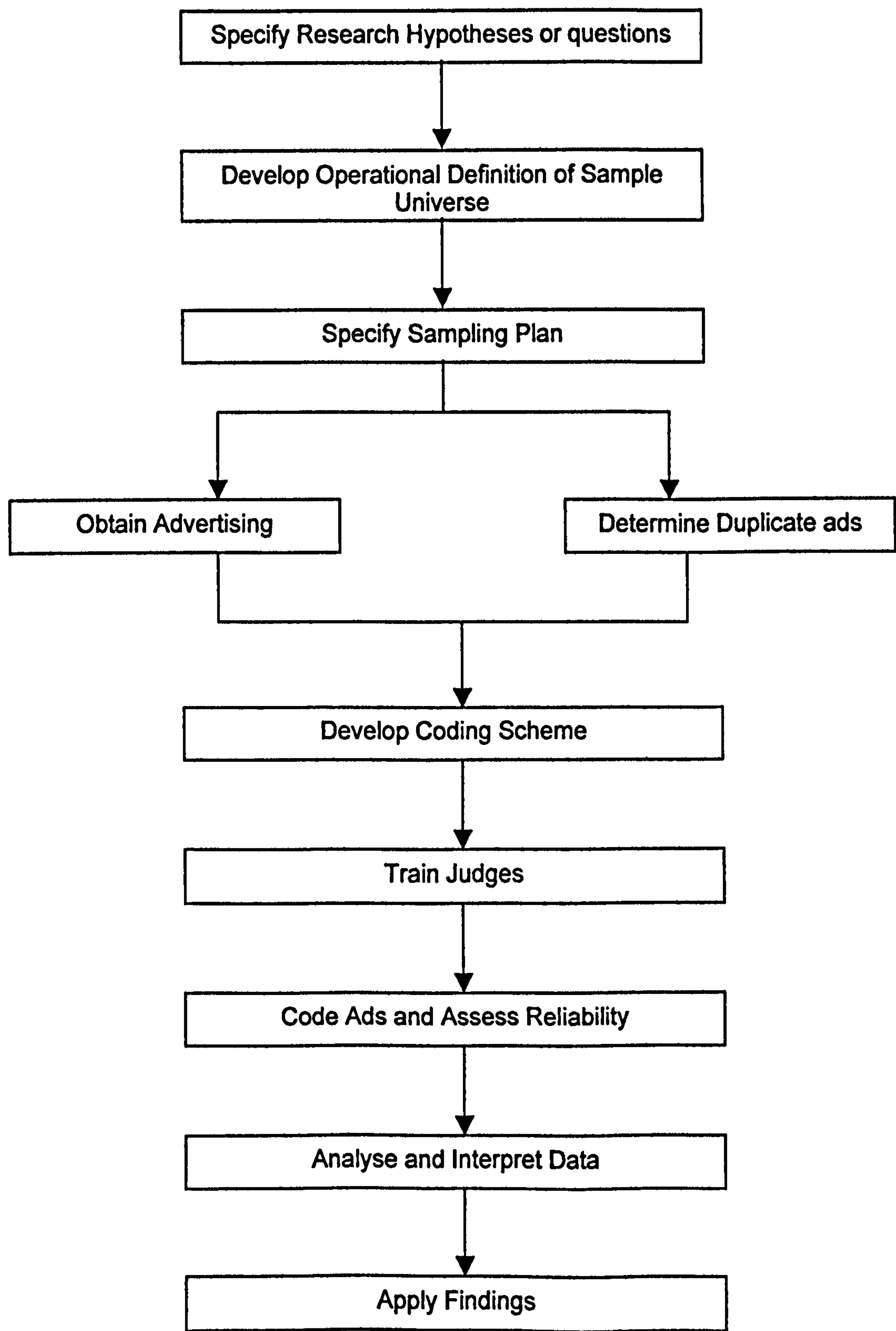
development of operational instruments, data collection, reliability assessment, and analysis of data, and ends with conclusions and application to decision making. Figure 5.1 depicts each step in content analysis. The literature reviews and hypotheses of cultural values have been discussed in Section 2.8.1 in Chapter 2. The development of thirty-three operational instruments has been examined in Section 3.2 in Chapter 3. The following sub-sections focus on sampling selections, coding procedures and reliability testing. The findings of analysis for content analysis are addressed in Chapter 6.

5.3.1 Selection of Magazines and Samples

The advertising medium used in this analysis was print advertisements from magazines. In order to maintain comparability, the three types of magazines from each country (UK and China) were matched by format, audience and demographics. The detail of sampling equivalence has been discussed on the Section 4.4.2.3 in Chapter 4. The main focus of this section is to explain the selection of sample advertisements from six magazines between 1996 and 1997 in the UK and China.

The selections of advertisements still followed the rules of comparability and equivalence in cross-culture research. Initially, the samples of advertisements were selected based on a random selection taken from six issues throughout one year in each magazine in order to reduce possible

Figure 5.1 Procedure of Content Analysis



Source: Adapted from Davis, 1997.

seasonal biases. As most of Chinese magazines contained only three advertisements in each magazine, (although “Nu Yu” has increased the number of its advertisements gradually in each issue), the sample of advertisements taken from Chinese magazines did not have enough sample to compare with the UK advertisements. Furthermore, the consideration of a large sample size may increase statistical power and decrease random sampling error. However, fatigue and boredom may reduce coding accuracy in large samples (Abernethy and Franke, 1996). Therefore, while Chinese advertisements were selected from 12 issues of each magazine, British advertisements were taken from six issues in each magazine.

There were 594 British adverts and 154 Chinese adverts in total for assessing cultural values using content analysis. The chosen magazines were focused on three main general areas: men, women and general interest with the period between 1996 and 1997, in which Youth Generation, Nu You, and Overseas Readers were selected from China, and FHM, Cosmopolitan, and Reader’s Digest were chosen from the UK.

The unit of analysis was restricted to full-page and larger size colour advertisements. The study considered only full-page or larger advertisements because of their dominant use in magazines and also because this procedure controls for advertisement size (Harmon *et al.*, 1987). Any duplicate advertisements appearing in the same year were excluded in order to eliminate redundancy and possible effect of brand-specific advertising expression (Hong *et al.*, 1987). The final total sample consisted of one 154 advertisements selected from Chinese magazines, and 594 advertisements from UK magazines. In addition to the cultural values, product classifications were also coded to help explain the significance in cultural values. All advertisements were categorised into thirteen product classifications including cosmetics and fashion, food and drink, household appliances, medicine, personal care, services, cars and motorbikes, home interior and improvement, education, audio/visual products, consumer

electrical products, entertainment, and miscellaneous. The detail of each product classification is depicted in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Product Category

Cosmetics and Fashion: Skin care, Colour make-up products, Clothes, Shoes, Bags, Perfume, Sunglasses, Watches, and Jewellery.
Food & Drink: Daily products (milk, butter, bread etc.), Baby food, Fresh food, Frozen food, Packaged food, Beverages (alcohol and non-alcohol drinks), Candy and confectionery, Cooking oil, Cooking sauces and herbs.
Household Appliances: Household cares products, Detergents, Soaps, Personal cleanses, Hair cares (shampoo, conditioner, mouse, hairspray, gel, etc.), Baby products, Cigarettes/tobacco products, Kitchenware, Pet products.
Medicine: Pills, Gel, Vitamins, and Medical information.
Personal Care: Hearing Aids, Contraception, Sanitary Products, Eye Care, and Health products.
Services: Finance/Bank, Insurance, Travel & tourism, Roofing & window repair, Flowering services, Department stores, Transportation (buses, ferries, flights, trains), Direct mail order, Fast foods (including take away).
Cars and Motorbikes
Home Interior & Improvement: Furniture, Fabrics, Giftware (China, pottery, and crystal), Fireplaces, Heating system, Hardware/DIY, Bathroom fixture, Kitchen utensils.
Education: School ads, Learning tapes, and Books.
Audio/Visual Products: CD player, Hi-fi stereo, TV, Video game systems, VCR, Camera, Portable radio, Walkman, Tape recorders.
Consumer Electrical Products (Household electrical): Microwave, Answering machine, Fax machine, Telephone, Dishwasher, Personal computer and accessories, Beeper, Mobile phone, Food processor, Dryer, Electrical dental Brush, Cooking, Washing machine, Water filter, Electric shaver.
Entertainment: Music (CD, tapes etc.), Film, Video, TV channel, Newspaper, Magazine, Games.
Miscellaneous

5.3.2 Coding Procedures

Coding Scheme

Most advertisements selected for the sample were removed from the magazines, numbered, and categorised by the author. Only four Cosmopolitan magazines, which were borrowed from a staff at De Montfort University, had their advertisements labelled within the magazines. The coding frame was based on Cheng (1994) and Cheng and Schweitzer's (1996) frameworks, which were originally built on Pollay's (1983) typology of cultural values (see Section 3.2 for detail of development of cultural values' instruments). The coding scheme consisted of a list of 33 cultural values with conceptual definitions, which were numbered for coding purposes, and a coding sheet with a full description of coding rules. A full of copy of the coding scheme and coding sheet are depicted in Appendix 5.

Furthermore, thirty-three of the cultural values were classified into rational and emotional values (see Table 3.2). This classification in Table 3.2 was not used for coding purposes, it was only to use for interpreting the findings (see Section 6.4).

Training Coders

Three judges (excluding the author) were selected based on similar business studies backgrounds. The training process began with an explanation of the categories, category definitions and dimensions shown in the coding scheme. This verbal instruction was followed by practice sessions on actual coding. In the first phase, they were trained in the concepts of cultural values and tested on a pilot exercise of 40 advertisements. They were trained in the use of the coding scheme which continued until they were able to agree consistently on the interpretation and application of the categories of cultural values. They attempted to identify the two most dominant values in each advertisement by first examining the illustrations and headlines, then the key elements in the

major captions and the main body of any advertisement copy. The coding results of this exercise were discussed and clarifications were made.

Coding Process

In the second phase, before coding the sample of advertisements, a sample of 10 percent from each country's advertisements was tested for the level of interjudge agreement by using Perreault and Leigh (1989) method and ranged from 0.85 to 0.91. A third judge, fluent in both English and Chinese, was added to the team to evaluate the same sample frame in order to examine interjudge reliability. The detail of testing reliability is discussed in Section 5.4. In the third phase, the advertisements were coded by two well-trained judges. A Chinese judge coded the Chinese advertisements and a British judge coded the UK advertisements. The primary reason for using native judges was to make certain that cultural differences in the expression of cultural values were properly captured during the evaluation process (Biswas *et al.*, 1992).

5.4. Reliability of Content Analysis

To minimise the researcher's subjectivity, a certain level of interjudge reliability in content analysis must be achieved in order to obtain a systematic, objective description of communications content. According to the discussion in Section 5.2.2, this interjudge reliability is largely influenced by the procedural issues that have been addressed previously in the objectivity section. Interjudge reliability in coding is evidenced by two judges independently assigning the same code to the same stimulus (Davis, 1997). If more than two judges are involved, the typically reported figure is the percentage of agreement between each pair of judges. Interjudge reliability can be calculated by any of several methods but must be calculated before

the data analysis, such as Holsti's overall percentage of agreement (1969) and Perreault and Leigh's I_r (1989).

The most common used measure of reliability is the ratio of coding agreements to the total number of coding decisions. Holsti (1969) recommends that interjudge reliability for nominal data can be calculated by using this method in order to reflect the overall percentage of agreement. The formula is:

$$\text{Reliability} = 2M \div N_1 + N_2$$

Where:

M is the total number of coding decisions on which the two judges agree,

N_1 and N_2 are the total number of coding decisions made by judges one and two.

Holsti's method is simple, straightforward, and easy to use, but some statisticians have criticised this approach because it may overestimate reliability by not controlling for judge matches that occur strictly by chance (Davis, 1997).

Perreault and Leigh (1989) have developed a second approach for the calculation of interjudge reliability. This approach is sensitive to reliability differences that have arisen as the number of classification dimensions increases. Therefore, the Perreault and Leigh method was used for the assessment of reliability of content analysis for this study. The calculation is I_r (interjudge reliability) as

$$I_r = \{[(F^0 \div N) - (1/K)] [K \div (K - 1)]\} \cdot ^5$$

Where:

F^0 is the number of coded items on which the judges agree,

N is the total number of codings,

K is the number of coding dimensions.

Both formulas are appropriate for nominal level data and the research literature reports usage of each. However, regardless of the formula used, it is generally recommended that the calculated measure of interjudge reliability is at least 0.80. Kassarian (1977) suggests that interjudge reliability reaches or exceeds a minimum 85 percent. For the present study of content analysis, the interjudge reliability ranged between 0.85 and 0.91 which was therefore satisfactory. The calculation of interjudge reliability for the Chinese and UK advertisements is presented as follows.

Interjudge Reliability of Chinese Advertisements

The 15 advertisements were randomly selected from 10 percent of Chinese sample frame (154 advertisements in total), the interjudge reliability for Chinese advertisements was calculated by using Perreault and Leigh's (1989) I_r as

$$I_r = \{[(F^0 \div N) - (1/K)] [K \div (K - 1)]\} \cdot ^5$$

Where:

$F^0 = 11$ (total number agreed by the Chinese judge and the third judge)

$N = 15$ (total number of codings)

$K = 33$ (total number of coding dimensions)

The result

$$\begin{aligned} I_r &= \{[(11 \div 15) - (1/33)] [33 \div (33 - 1)]\} \cdot ^5 \\ &= 0.85. \end{aligned}$$

Interjudge Reliability of UK Advertisements

The 60 advertisements were randomly selected from 10 percent of UK sample frame (594 advertisements in total), the interjudge reliability for UK advertisements was calculated by using Perreault and Leigh's (1989) I_r as

$$I_r = \{[(F^0 \div N) - (1/K)] [K \div (K - 1)]\} \cdot ^5$$

Where:

F^0 = 50 (total number agreed by the British judge and the third judge)

N = 60 (total number of codings)

K = 33 (total number of coding dimensions)

The result

$$\begin{aligned} I_r &= \{[(50 \div 60) - (1/33)] [33 \div (33 - 1)]\} \cdot ^5 \\ &= 0.91. \end{aligned}$$

The target was interjudge reliability larger than 0.80 as recommended by Kassarian (1977). As a result, the interjudge reliability of Chinese advertisements was 0.85 and interjudge reliability of UK advertisements was 0.91. These scores indicated that both countries' interjudge reliability for advertisements were acceptable.

5.5. Validity of Content Analysis

The limited information provided in methodology sections of other studies has hindered evaluation of validity. Earlier studies of content analysis had only 15-20% reported reliability data (Berelson, 1952). Although the record on reliability concerns by content analysts has been improved, few content analysis studies have paid attention to the problem of validity (Holsti, 1969).

In the field of content analysis, validity occurs when there is a high degree of correspondence between a concept's operational definition and the specific observable event used to record the concept (Davis, 1997). In methodological literature, validity is commonly determined in one of three ways: content, criterion, or construct. Kassarian (1977) suggests that choice of categories and content units may enhance or diminish the likelihood of valid inferences. Marino *et al.* (1989) employ content validation or fact validation to examine validity of content analysis in Initial Public Offerings. In their study of management and entrepreneurship research, Marino *et al.* (1989) argue that it is obvious that some form of empirical validation would contribute the process of construct validity, such as convergent or discriminant validity tests and can be derived from a multi-trait measurement design. However, as the content analyst is restricted to a single method, multiple operations of the concepts under study are desirable whenever possible. Thus, for this study of content analysis, at a minimum, content validity is required.

Content validity, or face validity as it is also called, is a subjective but systematic evaluation of how well the content of a scale represents the measurement task at hand (Malhotra, 1996). Although it is the simplest form of validity assessment, a measure is considered to have content validity when the subjective judgements of professionals agree that the measure accurately translates the operational definition into an observed event. To achieve this goal, it requires examining closely the units of measurement, categories, sampling procedures, and results. According to the discussions on development of measuring cultural value instruments and categories in Section 3.2, and the units of measurement, sampling procedures and coding procedures in Section 5.3, content validity for the present study of content analysis has been established. The results of content analysis are presented in Chapter 6.

5.6 Summary

In summary, advertising content analysis is the systematic, objective, and quantitative analysis of advertising conducted to infer a pattern of advertising practice or the elements of advertising strategies. This chapter has reviewed briefly the history of content analysis and its definition and characteristics by examining several scholars' studies. The process of content analysis began with the specification of the research questions or hypotheses, leading to operational definitions of the universe of interest and the sampling plan. This chapter has mainly presented the selected samples from both countries' magazine advertisements for content analysis. The coding procedure used for the content analysis has been also carefully examined. The results of interjudge reliability of content analysis for the both countries' advertisements also have been verified. The main focus of content validity in content analysis has been achieved by closely examining the units of measurement, categories, and sampling procedures. Chapter 6 will analyse and interpret the data and discuss the findings for the whole study.

CHAPTER 6 DATA ANALYSES AND HYPOTHESES TESTING

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapters examined data collection methodologies employed in the present research (see Chapter 4 and 5). This chapter presents empirical data analyses and deals with the testing of hypotheses. All statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2000). The data analyses begin with the exploration of general information about advertising exposure in the UK and China (Section 6.2). Then the analyses are concerned with the following key concepts and organised into three sections:

- a) cultural values (Section 6.3)
- b) advertising appeals (Section 6.4);
- c) attitudes towards advertising in general (Section 6.5).

In Section 6.2, analyses are presented with regard to the exploration of general information about advertising exposure in the UK and China. The comparative analyses were described with frequency regard to the differences between the two countries' young adults. Pearson's Chi-square test was applied to elicit the differences in mean scores based on gender groups of UK and Chinese respondents.

With a similar approach, Section 6.3 describes the evaluation of advertising content analysis of cultural values in magazine advertisements. The comparative analyses were first carried out by examining the frequency of appearance of the dominant cultural values between the two countries' magazine advertisements, followed by Pearson's Chi-square to detect whether there were significant differences between the characteristics of

cultural values in the UK and Chinese advertisements.

In Section 6.4, analyses are conducted on the responses of different emotional advertising appeals. First, the reliability of the measurement scale was tested, then further analyses were conducted with Paired-Samples *t*-test to check for differences in mean scores on Plutchik's Mood Rating scale between the two countries' respondents.

Section 6.5 discusses the issue of attitudes towards advertising between the UK and Chinese young adults. The comparative analyses and cross-cultural equivalence of the measurement instrument of Larkin's attitudinal scale were evaluated by using factor analysis. The comparisons of means of the two countries were used to explore the perceived relative importance of attitudes towards advertising. Further mean scores and Independent *t*-test analyses were used to explain the significant differences between the two countries young adults.

Finally, Section 6.6 presents the chapter conclusion.

6.2 Analyses of General Information of Advertising Exposure in the UK and China

This section focuses on exposure of the general information about UK and Chinese advertising from section one of the questionnaire prior to the testing of hypotheses. Data analyses used frequency to elicit the young adults' general views about their own countries' advertising in terms of

- Spending time on reading magazines,
- Ranking advertising media exposure,
- Obtaining product information sources,
- Type of commercial/advertising,
- Perceptions of magazine advertisements exposure,
- Amount of advertising,
- Usefulness of magazine advertising.

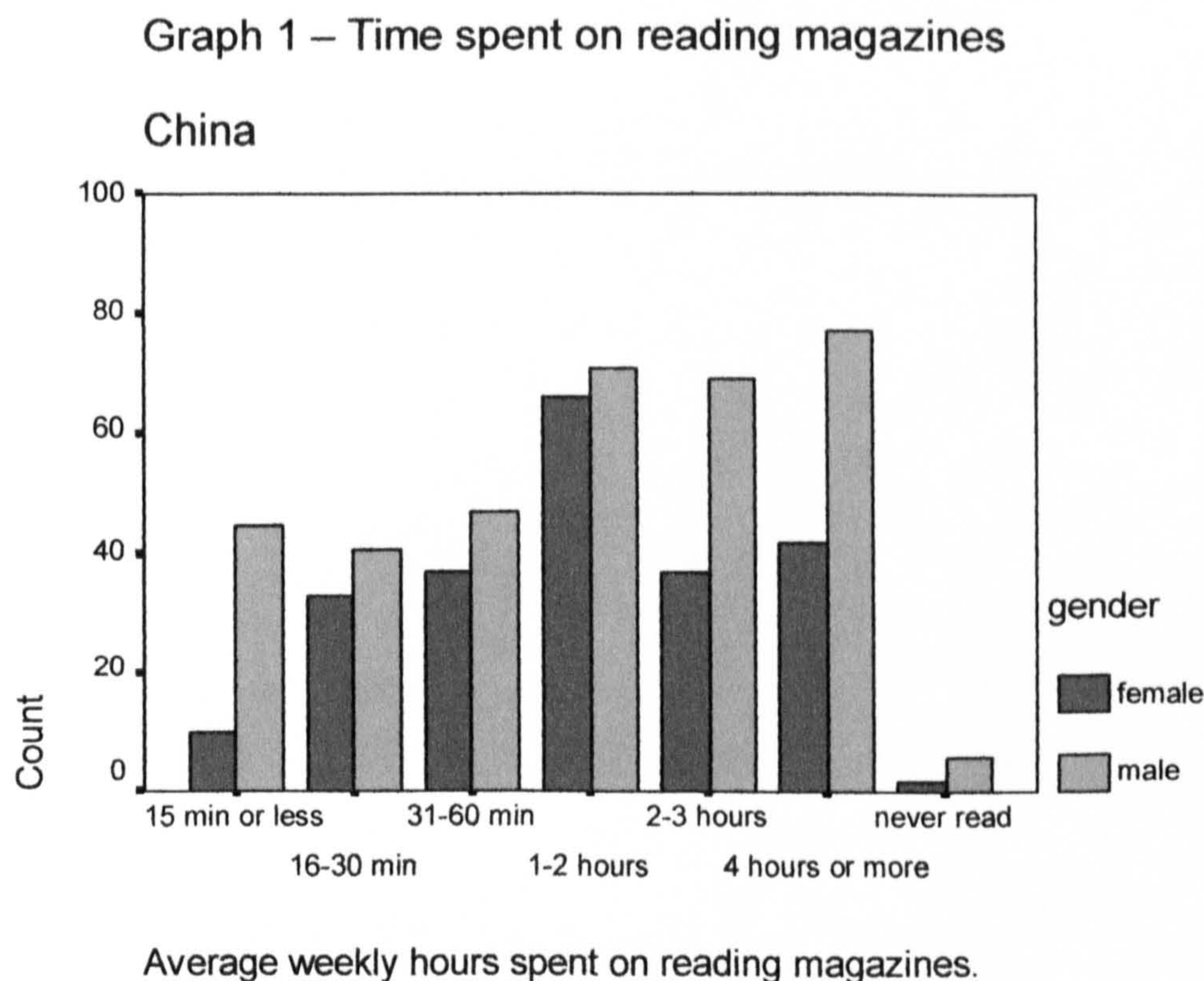
Furthermore, Pearson's Chi-square was used to detect whether there was a significant association between gender groups, especially on the subject of magazine information. The participants in this research focused on young adults in urban areas in both China and the UK, therefore, comparisons of gender differences are meaningful. As there is a lack of advertising information on Chinese new-generation, data analyses first explore advertising information and test significant gender effects in China, followed by investigation of general advertising information and examining significant gender differences in the UK. Finally, the section summary presents the comparison of differences and similarities between the two nations' respondents and their gender effects.

6.2.1 General Information of Advertising Exposure in China

Time spent on reading magazines

The statistics of frequency tests indicated that Chinese young adults, the so called Chinese new-generation, spent a considerable amount of time on reading magazines. Over twenty percent of respondents spent "more than 4 hours" a week on average reading magazines. Nearly forty-two percent of respondents spent at least "more than 1-2 hours" reading magazines weekly. The further analyses using Pearson's Chi-square revealed that the significance level of male respondents was well below the alpha level of 0.05

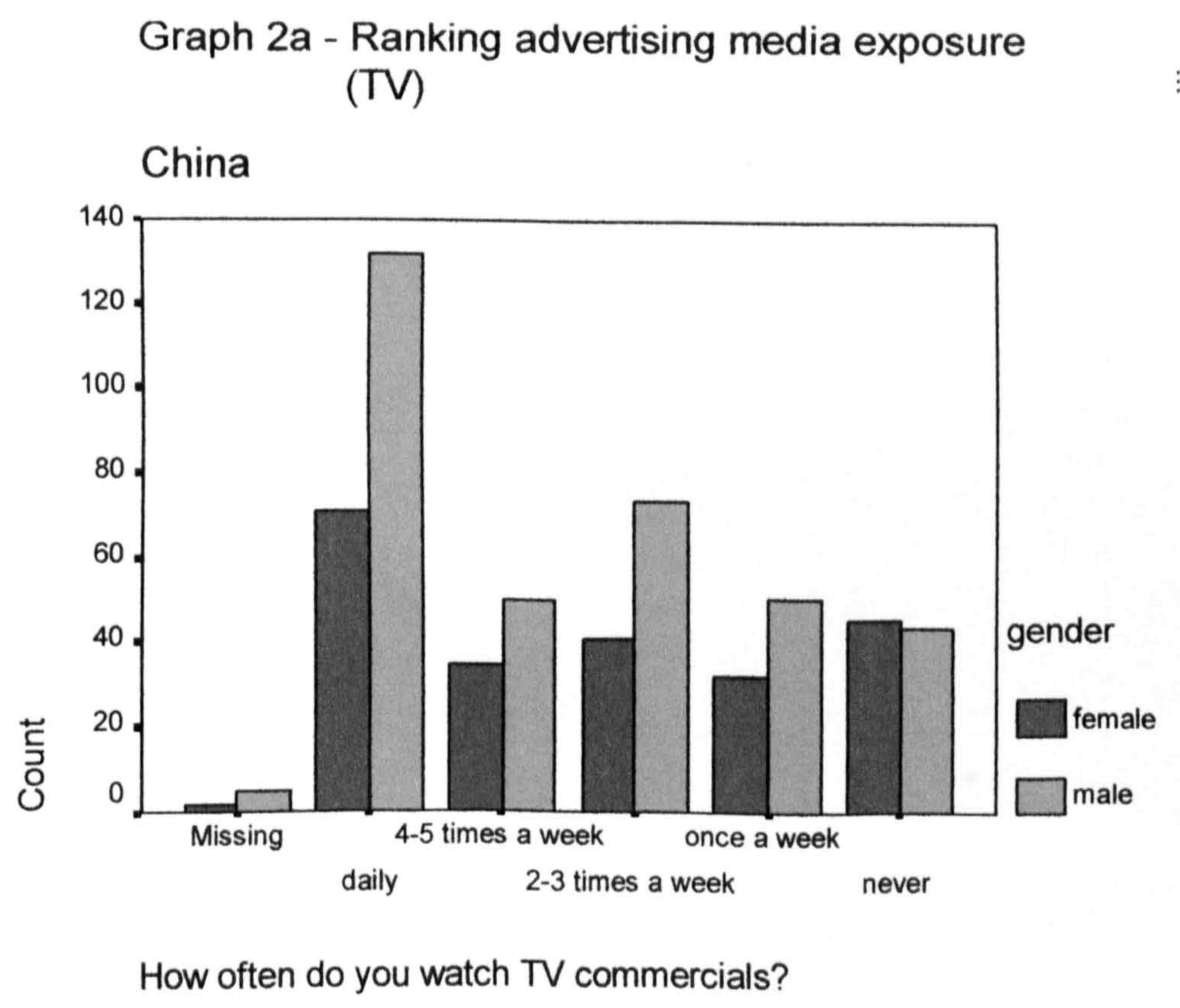
on time spent reading magazines weekly. This result indicated that males ($X^2 = 18.149$; $df = 5$; $p = 0.003$) spent much more time on reading magazines than females. In Graph 1, analysis also revealed that those male young adults in China spread out roughly even at the different levels of time spent on reading magazines weekly, while female respondents' reading time was more converged on the "more than 1-2 hours" weekly.



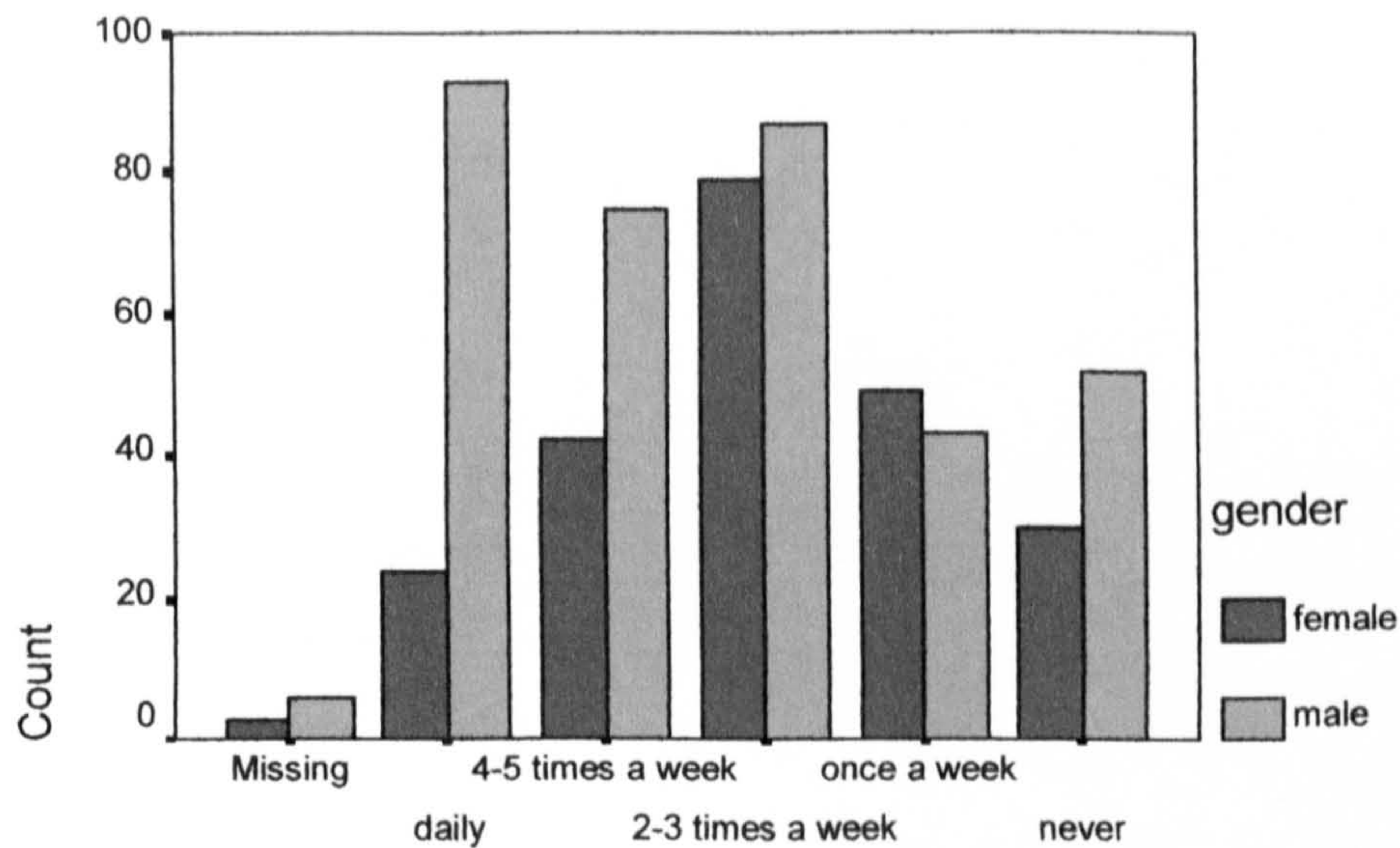
Ranking advertising media exposure

This part examined how subjects ranked advertising exposure from different media, such as TV commercials and advertisements from newspapers, magazines and radios. The frequency analyses showed that fifty percent of the Chinese new-generation were exposed to advertising by spending “daily” and “4-5 times a week” on watching TV. Graph 2a (pp.132) displays the young male Chinese had likely exposure to the TV medium more than females, while young female Chinese had roughly even exposure to the TV medium at different time scales. In fact, most of the Chinese respondents (by the time of the questionnaire survey, they were engaged in studies at universities) stayed in the school accommodation to share a TV in the hall of resident. It was obvious that other media such as newspapers, magazines

and radio play important roles in Chinese student lifestyles during academic term time. Approximately two-thirds of participants were exposed to advertising by spending at least “2-3 times a week” to read newspaper and magazine advertisements. The Chi-square test revealed that there were no significant differences between genders on the subject of magazine exposure ($X^2 = 4.461$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.347$, see Graph 2b and 2c, pp. 133). Surprisingly, nearly one-third of the Chinese new-generation never listened to the radio, while only nineteen percent of respondents listened to the radio everyday (see Graph 2d, pp. 134). It was most likely considered that the noise of radio might distract other students in the school accommodation. The findings also suggest that the Chinese new-generation spent considerable time on the other mass media because they had less opportunity to watch TV during the school term time.

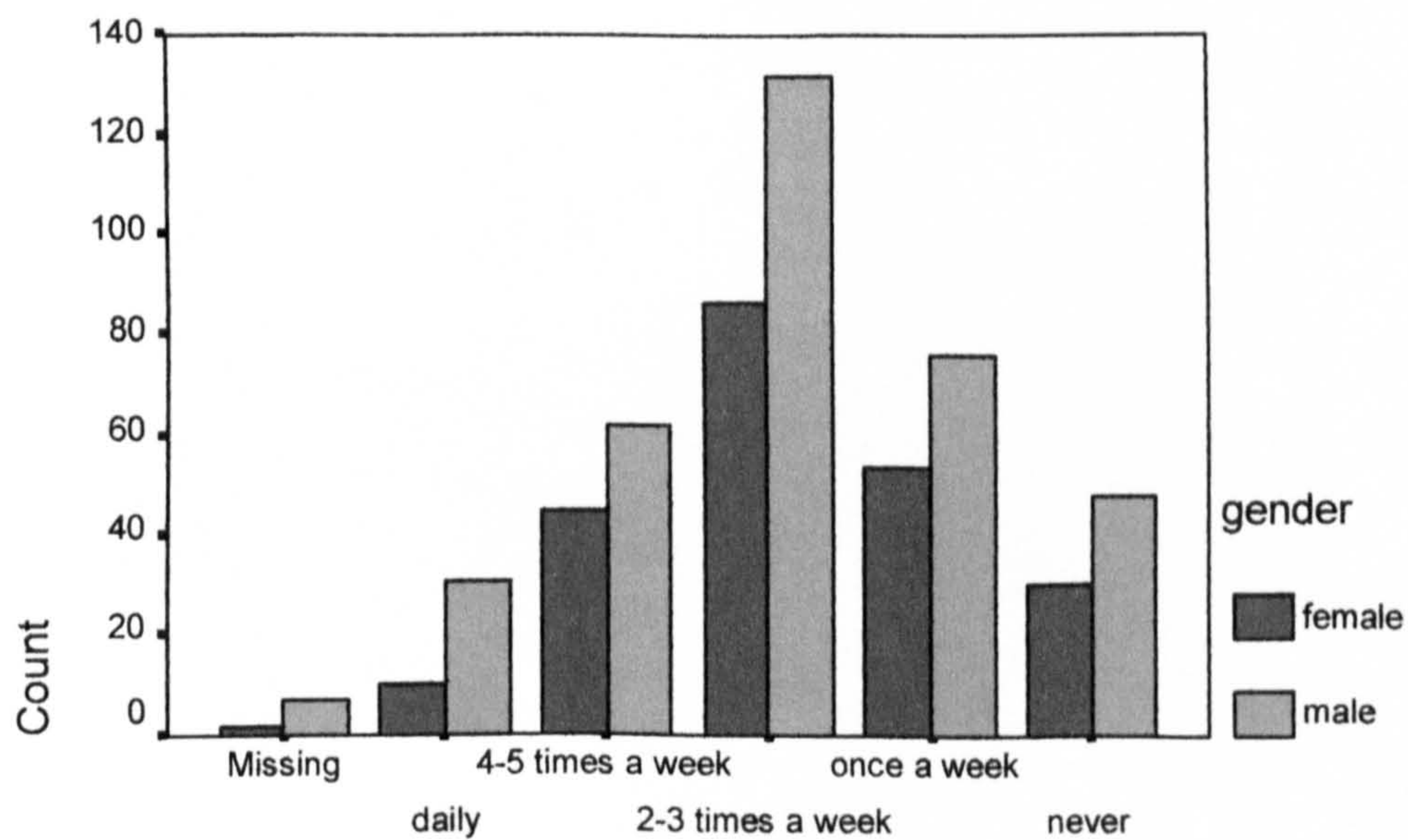


Graph 2b - Ranking advertising media exposure
(Newspaper)
China

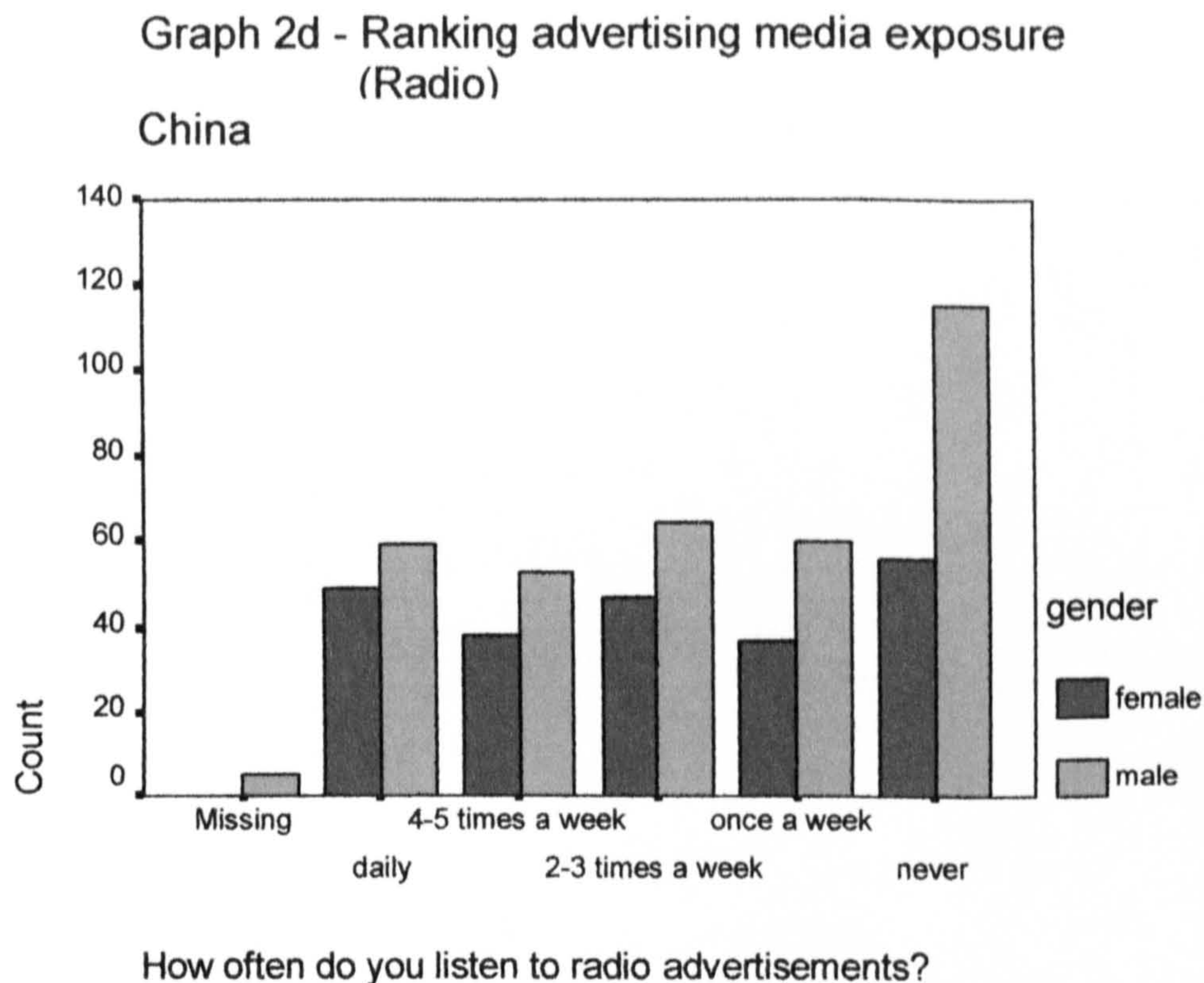


How often do you read newspapers advertisements?

Graph 2c - Ranking advertising media exposure
(Magazine)
China



How often do you read magazine advertisements?



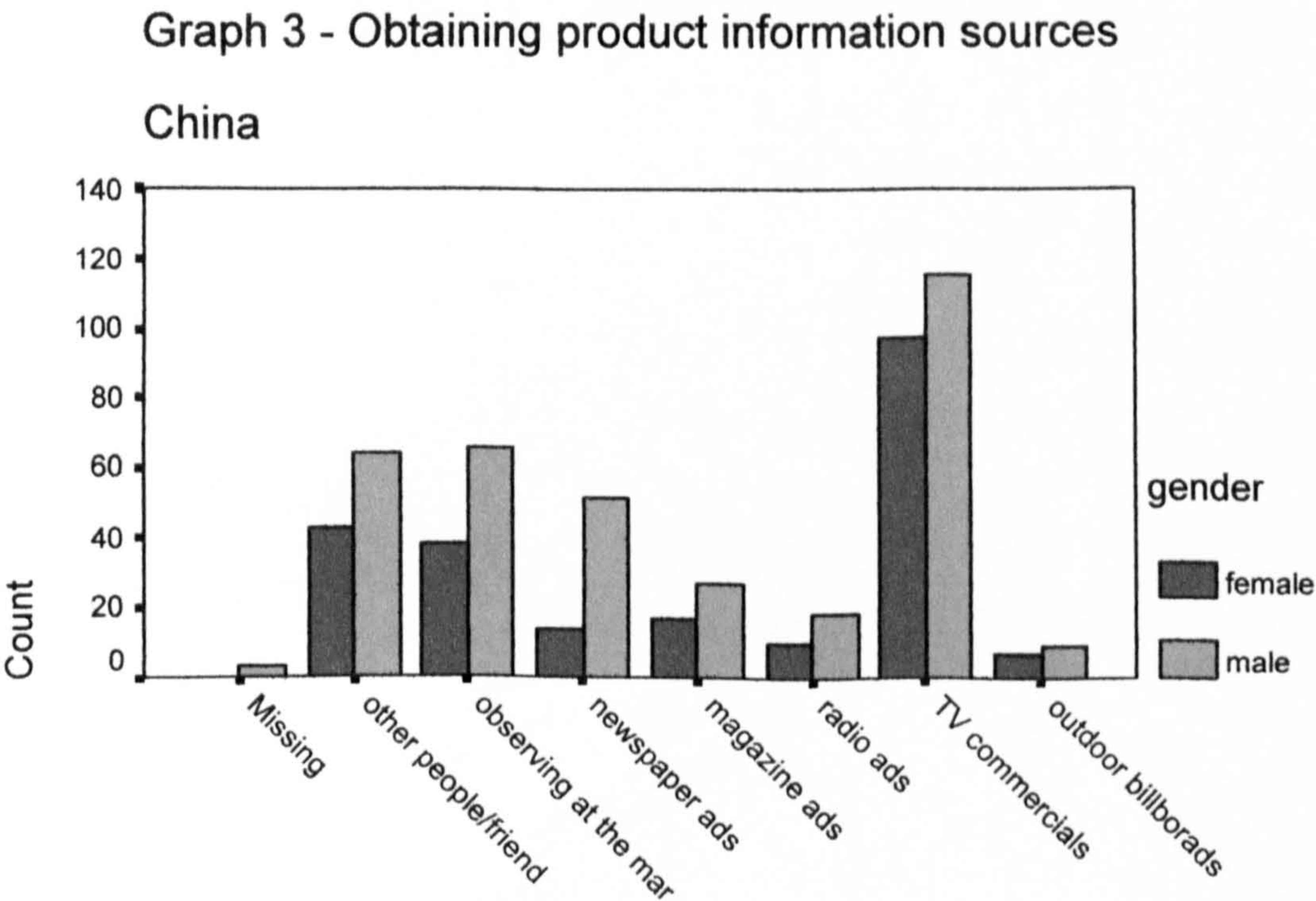
According to the statistical report, thirty-five percent of respondents only read magazines either “once a week” or “never” on average weekly basis. The majority of the Chinese new-generation responded with “lack of time” to read magazines. Other reasons were that magazine advertisements were of little use to them, poor quality of advertising, magazine unavailable, no interest in magazine respectively. The further test of Pearson’s Chi-square revealed that the significance value was greater than 0.05 ($X^2 = 3.603$; $df = 5$; $p = 0.608$), indicating no significant differences between the genders.

Obtaining product information sources

Among the many commercial sources, TV was stated as being the main channel to obtain the product information (36.7 percent) and also rated the most favourable medium advertising (62.6 percent). It was commendable to notice that nearly twenty percent of participants rated “other people/friends” (18.4 percent) as the second source of product information. People read advertisements in order to, partly, absorb the product information, but friends, colleagues and “desire-to-confirm” influence their buying decisions. It most

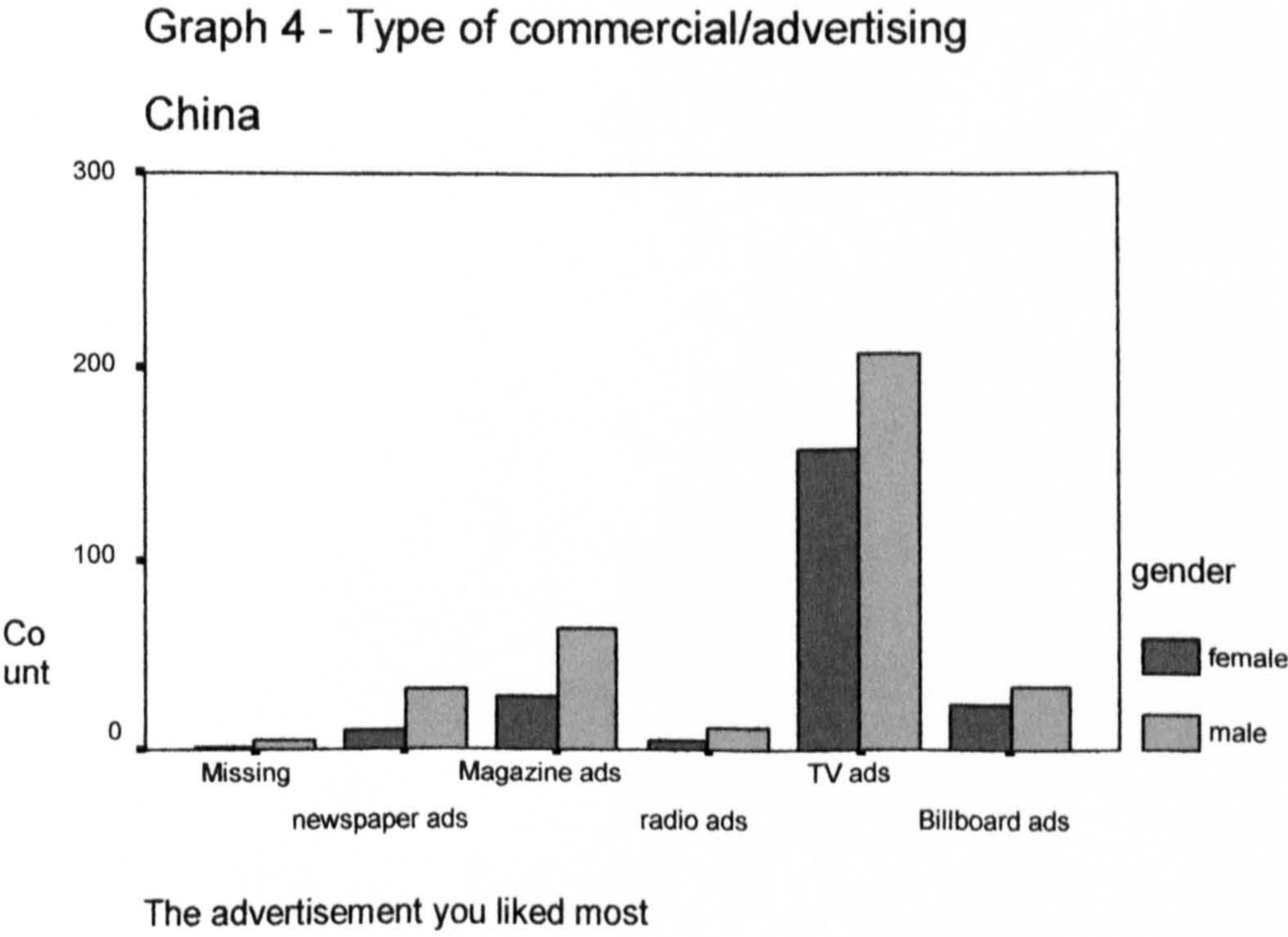
likely reveals that word of mouth or interpersonal sources still play an important part in marketing communications in Chinese society. “Observing at the market” was also ranked with a similar percentage (17.8 percent) as an alternative way to receive product information. In modern China, there are numerous advertising media sources surrounding the major cities, especially cities along the Southeast coast of Mainland China. Obtaining product information is now much easier than in the past in China. The other mass media channels for obtaining product information ranked from newspapers (11.3 percent), magazines (7.5 percent), radio (5 percent), and outdoor billboards (2.7 percent) respectively. On inspection of the Chi-square test, the significance level ($X^2 = 13.640$; $df = 6$; $p = 0.034$, see Graph 3) revealed that the distributions of obtaining the product information showed significant differences between the genders. In terms of print advertising sources, the analyses showed that male respondents tended to use more newspapers than females, while magazines had a similar ranking among the genders.

Type of commercial/advertising



The main channel you obtain product information.

were ranked as the most favourable type of advertising and played a significant role in advertising promotion in China. It was worthy to notice that magazine advertisements were rated as the second popular advertising (16 percent) among respondents. Further analysis by gender of participants revealed that the responses to the different types of advertising had a significance level below the alpha level of 0.05 ($X^2 = 9.926$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.042$). The significant difference was that women were much more favourable to TV commercials, which also confirmed that the Chinese female new-generation used more TV as the medium for gaining product information. The comparison of print media revealed that male respondents preferred magazine and newspaper advertising. While China's mass media has now over 2,100 television, cable, and satellite stations (Son and Wong, 1998), magazines are, however, viewed as a considerably valuable medium for reaching many demographic groups. The statistics revealed that billboard was ranked ahead of newspaper and radio as the third preferable advertising medium (see Graph 4).

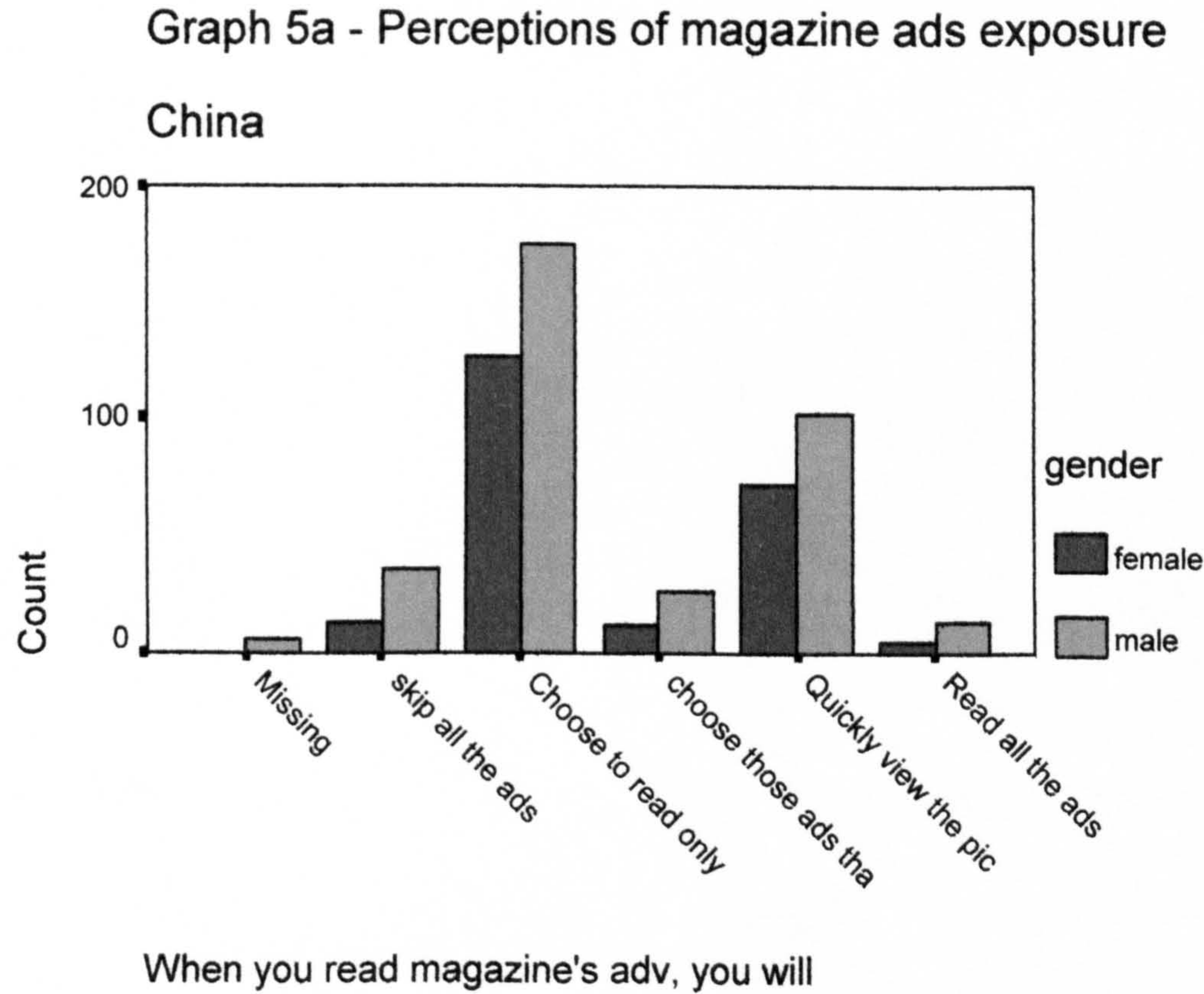


In order to understand how Chinese young adults selected their favourite type of commercial/advertising from Chinese mass media, a survey question asked them to describe briefly their opinions on the reason for choosing the most preferable commercial/advertising. This open question was summarised by the author based on descriptions given by respondents. Overall, young adults in China were attracted by visual stimuli from TV commercials, such descriptions included lively, colourful, beautiful, appealing, reality, bright, gorgeous models, sophisticated product features and background music, and fast, updated and convenient for obtaining new product information. Magazine advertisements also had similar visual stimuli and demanded attractive and cognitive responses as TV commercials did, except the advertisement contained more detail of product information, which could be read repeatedly. Billboard advertisements gained attention increasingly because of their presentation method, which were posted on public transportation and main roads. People pass by on their way home or going to work everyday, taking time to watch/read billboard advertisements because the traffic existing in the major cities is slow during rush hours in China. Most young Chinese adults stated that newspaper advertisements which were printed on low quality paper were less attractive. Commercials broadcast through the radio were viewed as pointless for the duration of its exposure and for the lack of focus because verbal information was considered to be less effective.

Perceptions of magazine advertisements exposure

In order to determine Chinese young adults' perceptions of magazine advertisements; survey questions asked about their attitudes and opinions of magazine advertisements. Firstly, they were asked about their attitudes when they read advertisements in magazines. The statistics of frequency tests revealed that over fifty percent of respondents read only those magazine advertisements that interested them, and thirty percent of people quickly viewed the pictures/titles of advertisements in a magazine. The results most likely suggest that Chinese young adults still pay considerable

attention to the advertisements when they read magazines, especially, on the picture/titles that could be attracted them. Almost 7 percent of participants read magazine advertisements because of the need for product information, while less than ten-percent of people skipped all the advertisements in a magazine. Only three percent of respondents read all advertisements in a magazine. The further Chi-square test indicated that there were no significant differences between the genders ($X^2 = 6.601$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.195$) on the subject of their attitudes towards reading magazine advertisements (see Graph 5a).



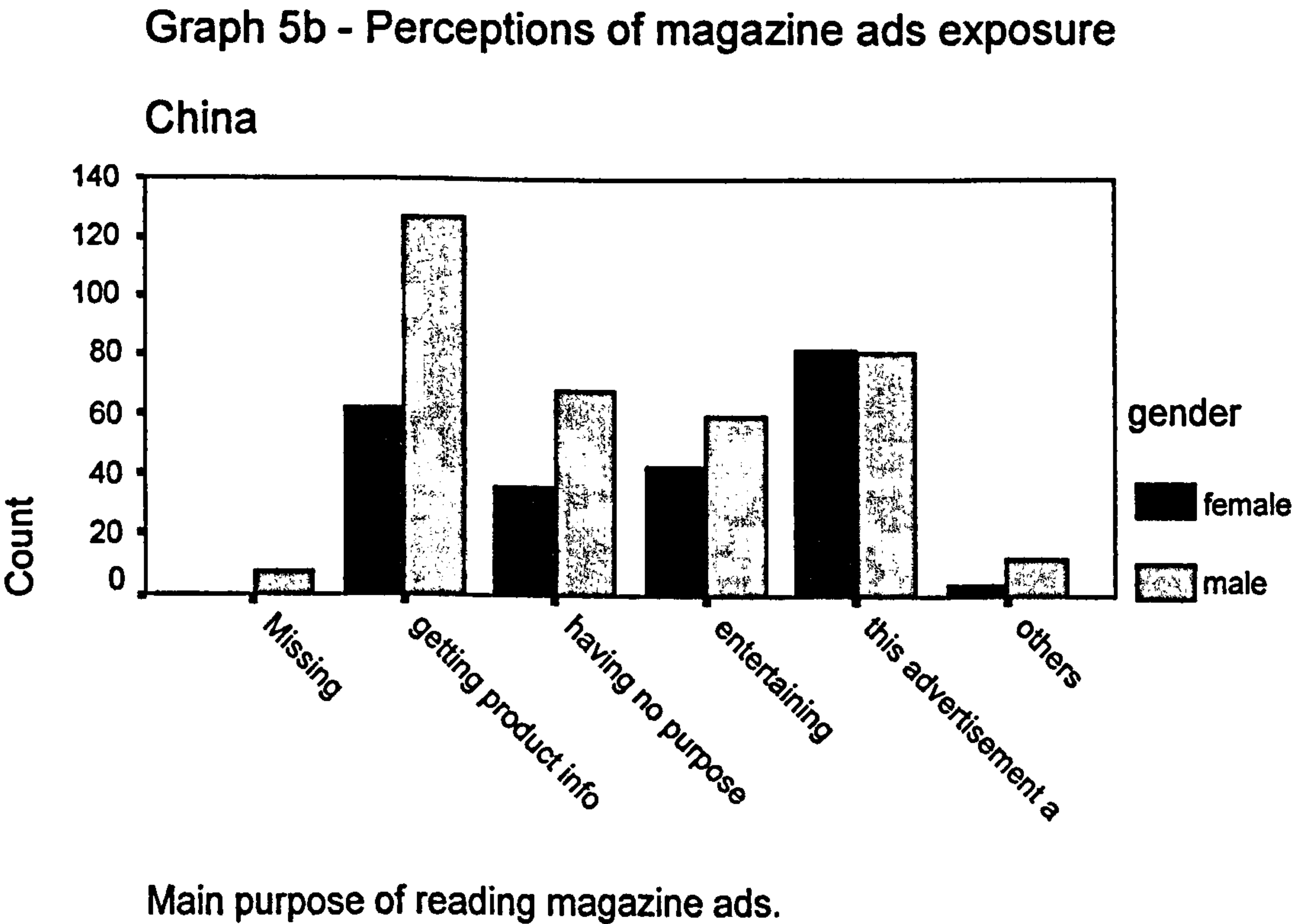
Secondly, in order to understand the subjects that Chinese young adults pay more attention to when reading magazine advertisements, they were asked to report on the most important two subjects in the advertisement messages. Among five subjects identified, nearly sixty percent of people responded that the “product features” was the main reason to gain their attention. The

magazine advertisements employing attractive actors or models also received a certain degree of attention (31 percent). The subjects of “the artistic appearance of the product” (27 percent) and “slice-of-life story” (22 percent) in magazine advertisements also both gained similar substantial attention. Surprisingly, only sixteen percent of people paid attention to the information on manufacturers’ or stores’ addresses. The statistics indicates that a considerable amount of attention on product features means Chinese young consumers desire more stylish and modish products. On inspection of the Pearson Chi-square statistics, the significance levels indicated that none of the formats of advertisements had gender effects (all $p > 0.05$), except for the subject of “slice-of-life story” which showed females with very significant differences. Chinese young female adults preferred advertisements which were related to the expression of reality, while the majority of males responded negative to this ($X^2 = 22.268$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$).

Thirdly, Chinese new-generation were asked about the main purpose of reading magazine advertisements in order to acquire a further understanding of the role of magazine advertisements. The frequency statistics revealed that over thirty percent of respondents used magazine advertisements to obtain product information. Nearly thirty percent of people responded that they read some magazine advertisements because of attractiveness of those advertisements. While seventeen percent of respondents showed no purpose to reading advertisements in magazines, the same percentage of participants viewed advertisements as entertaining. The Chi-square test revealed that there was no significant differences between the genders ($X^2 = 14.178$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.07$) (see Graph 5b, pp.140).

Finally, the survey investigated the two main reasons that young Chinese adults thought of printing advertisements in magazines. The majority of respondents (60 percent) viewed advertisements as making profit for the magazine itself. While thirty-three percent of people thought advertisements helped companies to market merchandise efficiently. A similar respondent

rate (32 percent) showed that magazine advertng helped to increase revenue in order to produce higher quality magazines. Although previous findings indicated that over thirty percent of respondents used magazine advertisements to obtain product information, almost seventy percent of respondents disagreed that magazine advertisements initially provided product information and service as the main reason to the readers. Among these four reasons, only “to serve the readers by providing product information/service” had a gender effect ($X^2 = 7.302$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.007$). Seventy-five percent of males were more likely to disagree that magazine printed advertisements provide information/service.



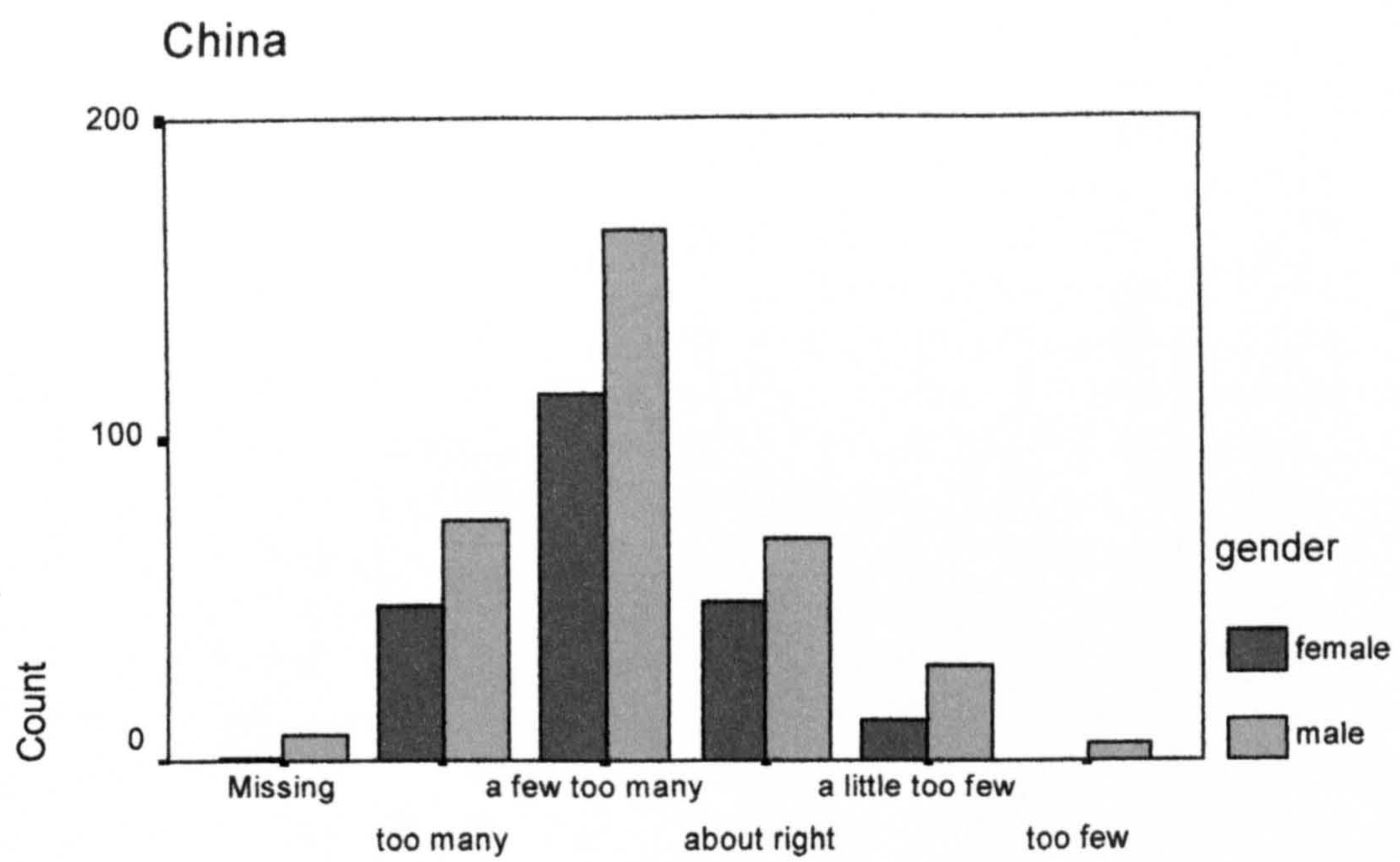
Overall, the Chinese new-generation paid more attention to attractive advertisements, especially for the product features and attractive actors and models. Young Chinese adults considered product information as the major purpose for reading advertisements and viewed advertising as a tool to gain the information they needed. In contrast, they disagreed that magazine advertisements initially provided product information and service as the main

reason to the readers. Young adults in China not only desired more new product information, but they also tended to have more enjoyment in reading magazine advertisements, and preferred advertisements that relate to their daily life. They perceived the role of magazine advertising as making profits and promoting products for both advertising agencies and magazine companies. However, the findings also highlight that they expect advertising would lead to higher quality magazines to satisfy the modern Chinese consumer tastes.

Amount of advertising

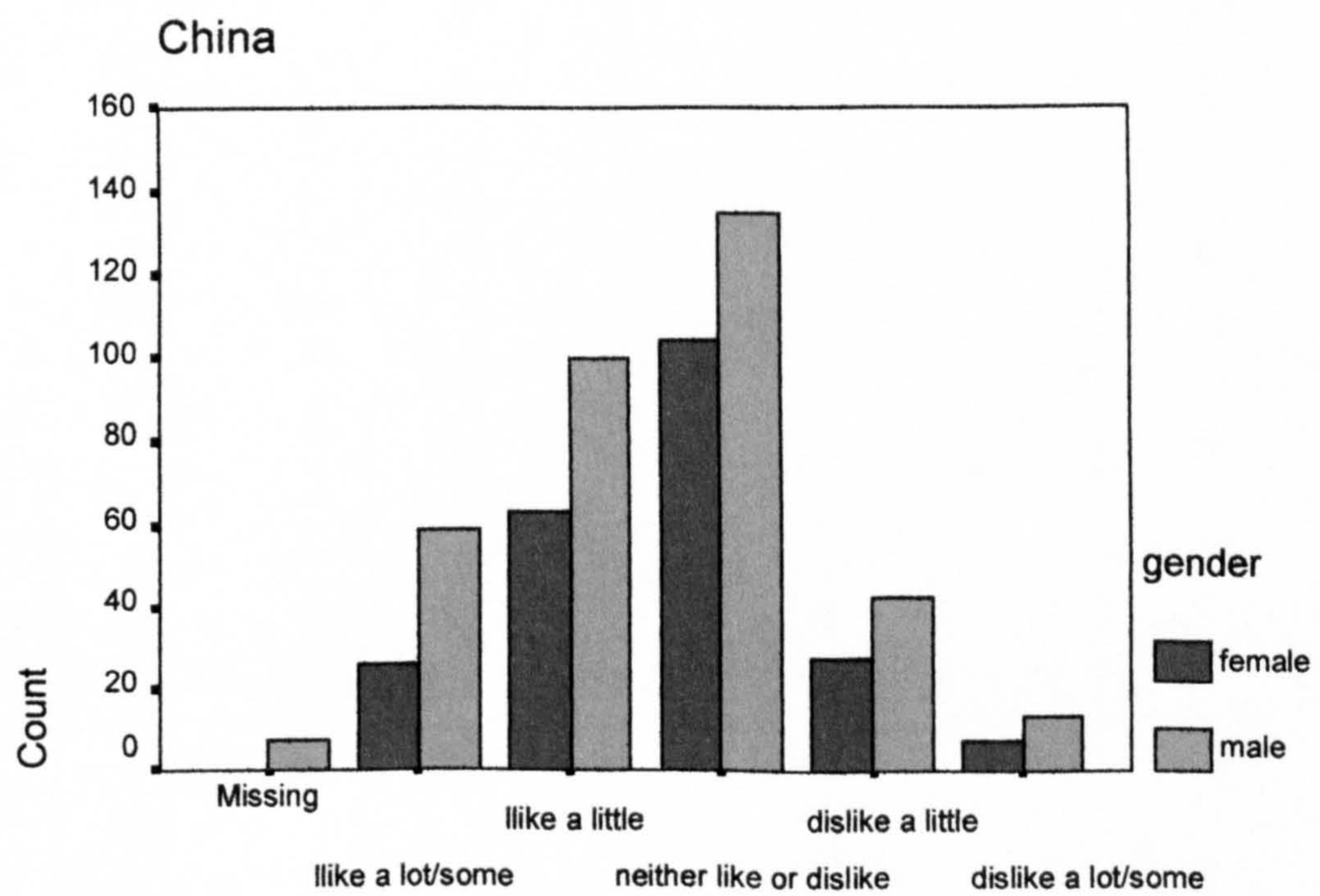
Overall, most young adults in China agreed that there were large amounts of advertising in Chinese mass media. The majority of respondents (69 percent) felt there were “too many” or “a few too many” advertisements in magazines, and over twenty percent of people thought that the number of advertisements were “about right” (see Graph 6, pp.142). There were no significant gender effects ($X^2 = 6.153$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.188$) on the subject of amount of advertising. Although the Chinese new-generation were increasingly widely exposed to mass media, the statistics showed they had mixed feelings about advertising. Forty-one percent of respondents said they liked advertising, while a similar percentage (41.5 percent) revealed that they neither liked nor disliked advertising (see Graph 7, pp.142). The further analyses of Chi-square test on the subject of liking advertising indicated that there were no significant differences between the genders ($X^2 = 4.661$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.188$).

Graph 6 - Amount of advertising



The number of advertisements in China.

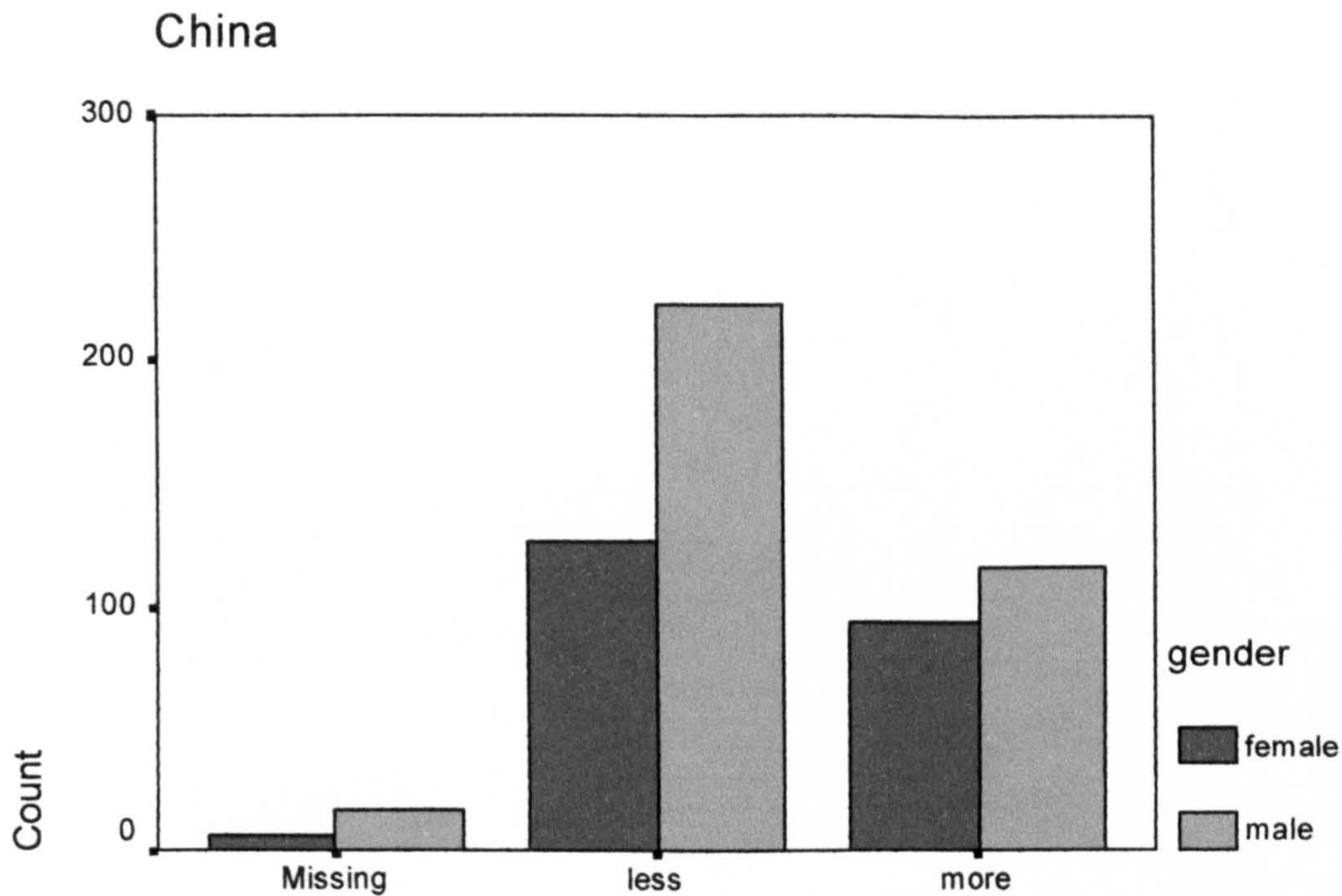
Graph 7 - Like or dislike advertising



Do you like advertising?

In order to explore what type of product information young adults in China needed, the survey also asked respondents to report their needs for information from a list of thirteen types of advertisements. The results revealed that living standards have been improved among of the Chinese new-generation. More than fifty percent of respondents said they needed more advertising on watches, glasses, bikes, cars and motorcycles. Nearly fifty percent of people would prefer more fashion information, such as clothing, shoes, jewellery etc. More than two-thirds of respondents wanted more advertising on computers, photocopiers and other office products, and books, magazines, schools, education, and entertainment information. Information about audio/visual equipment, such as Hi-Fi, Walkman, TV, VCR etc. ranked forty-six percent. The findings also indicated that lifestyle has been transformed among the Chinese new-generation. Since the development of housing plans have increased over Mainland China in recent years, especially in main cities, nearly fifty percent of respondents required more interior decoration information about carpets, furniture and relevant interior subjects. Chinese consumers are very concerned about the conditions of their health and they often take supplements or prepare Chinese medicine in foods or drinks to enhance their nutritional intake. Over half of respondents agreed that there were too many medicine advertisements; while forty-two percent of people still asked for more information on the subject of medicine and health. It would be very interesting for pharmacy manufacturers or health product companies from Western countries to know how to promote their products under such a strong traditional Chinese medicine environment. Following the rapid growth of the Chinese economy, many consumer goods are available in the Chinese market. Over two-thirds of respondents said there were too many advertisements regarding information on cosmetics, sanitary and hygiene products, household necessities, food and drink. The results also pointed out consumer electrical appliances, such as fridge, microwave etc., were no longer the most favourable items (63 percent) (see Graph 8a, pp.144 and Graph 8b – 8m, pp.145 – 147).

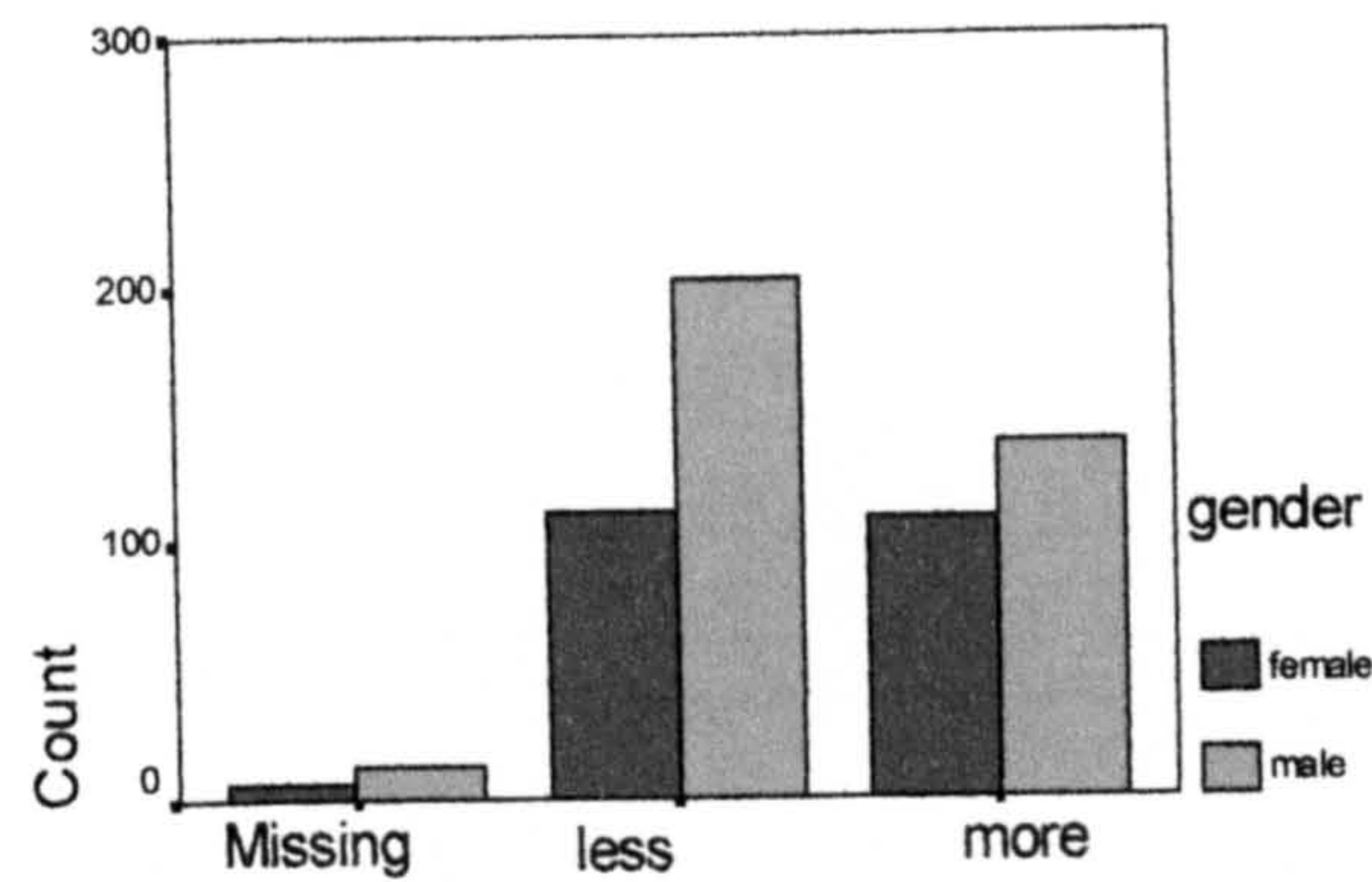
Graph 8a -cosmetics, sanitation & hygiene products



Further analysis by gender of subjects revealed that there were some differences between male and female responses. Obviously, male participants had a very significant response in requiring more information on cars and motorcycles ($X^2 = 14.124$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$), while female respondents demanded more fashion information ($X^2 = 28.201$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$). The findings indicated that female young adults in China tended to concentrate more on lifestyle, they asked for more entertainment information ($X^2 = 8.451$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.004$), carpets, furniture and other interior decoration information ($X^2 = 7.912$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.005$). While audio/visual equipment was still favoured by male respondents ($X^2 = 7.284$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.007$), and consumer electrical appliances were less favoured items among female subjects ($X^2 = 7.339$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.007$). In the case of medicine, nutrition and health information, more male young adults in China agreed there should be a reduction in this type of advertisement ($X^2 = 4.221$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.04$), while females held near to an equal percentage of opinions on “more” or “less” medicine advertisements.

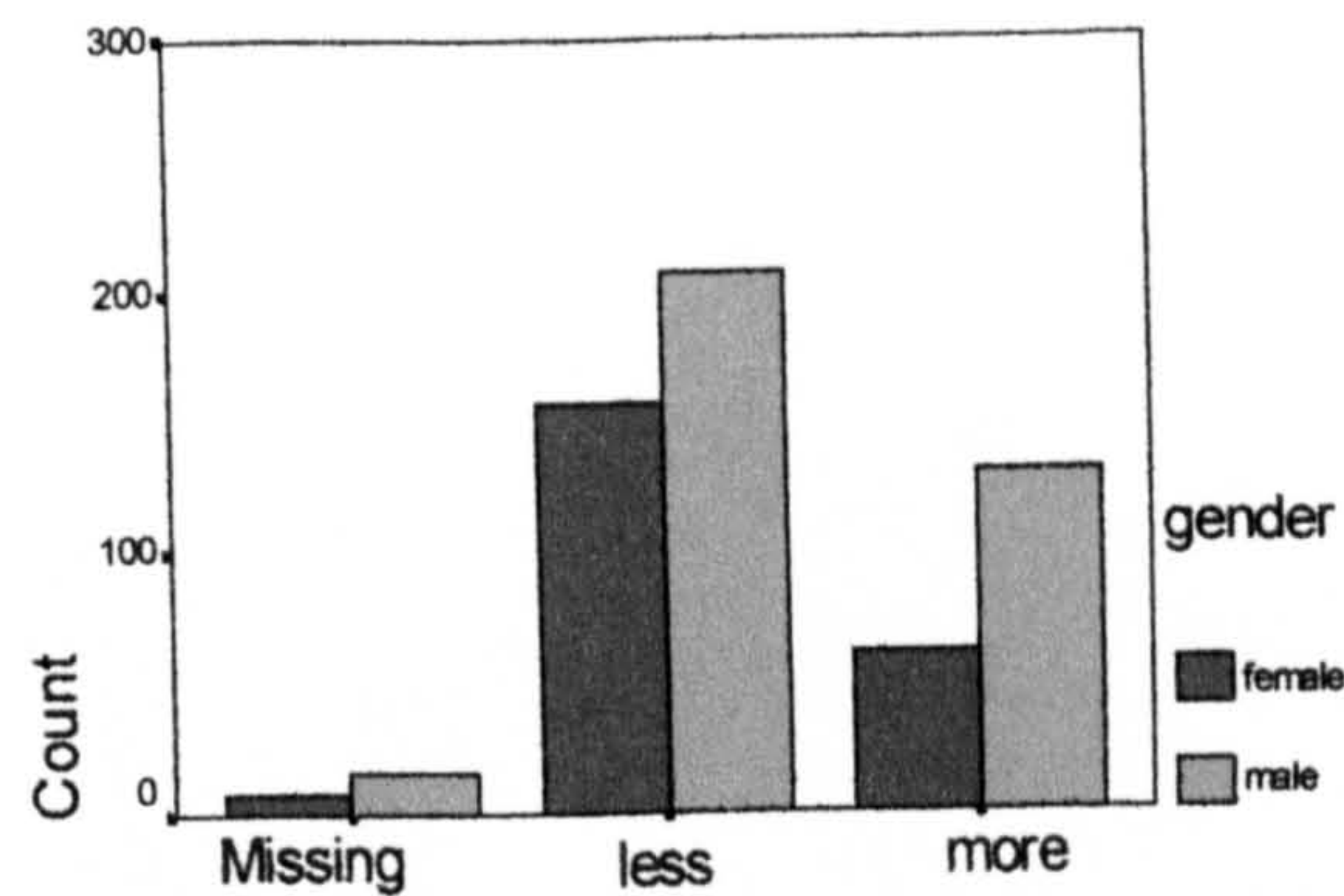
Graph 8b - medicine

China



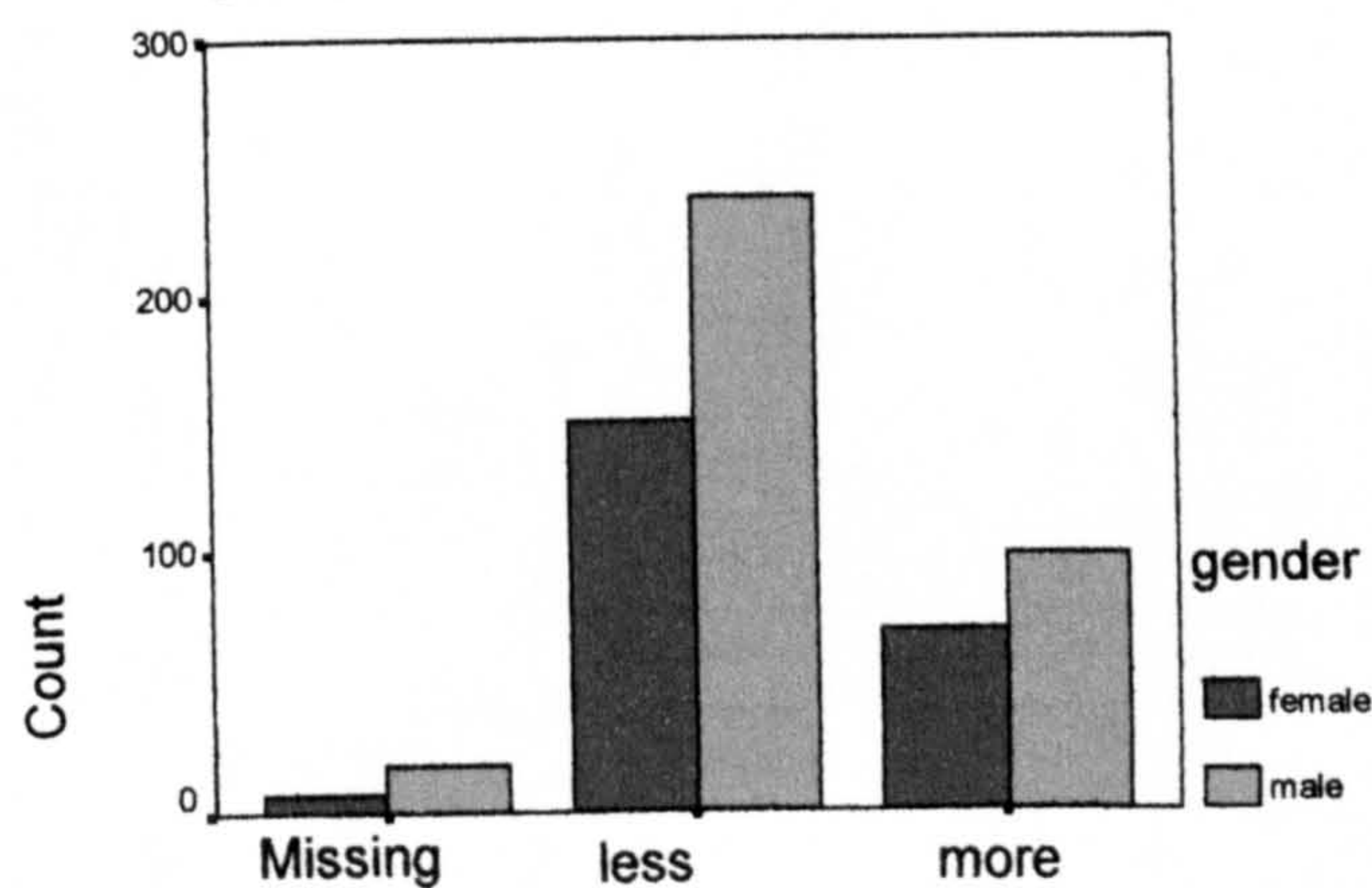
Graph 8c - Consumer electrical appliances

China



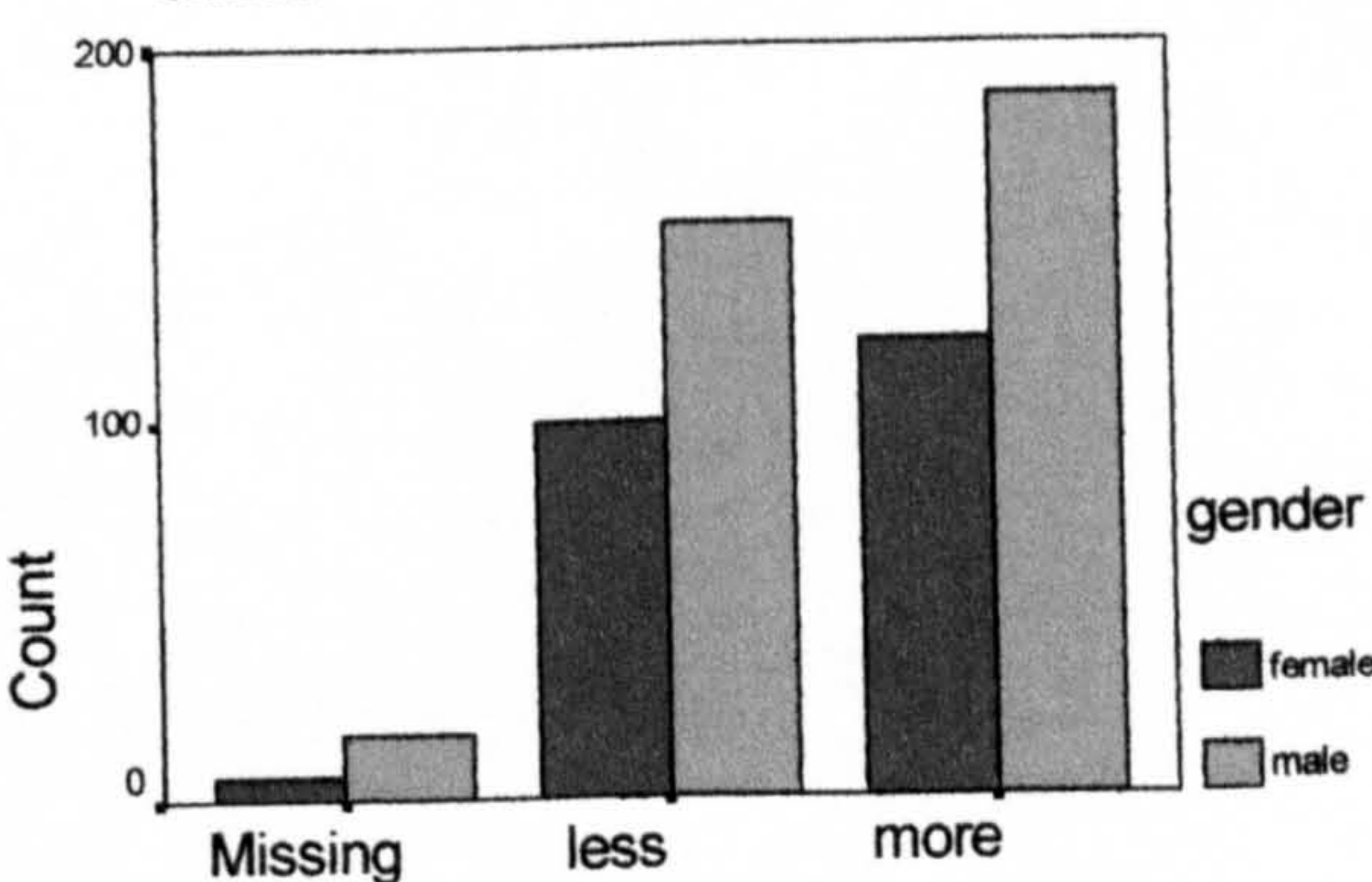
Graph 8d - Household appliances

China



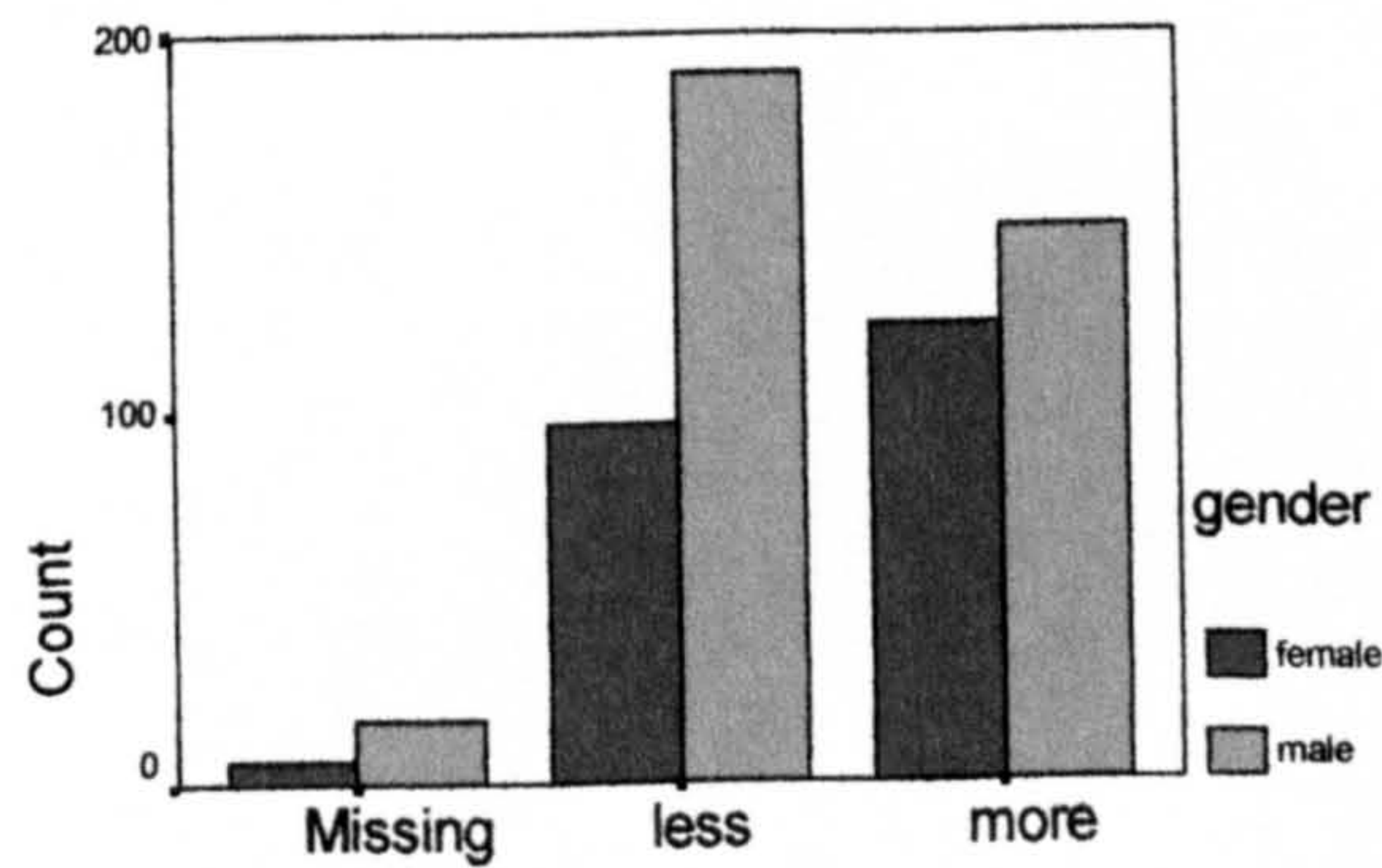
Graph 8e - Daily necessities, watches etc

China



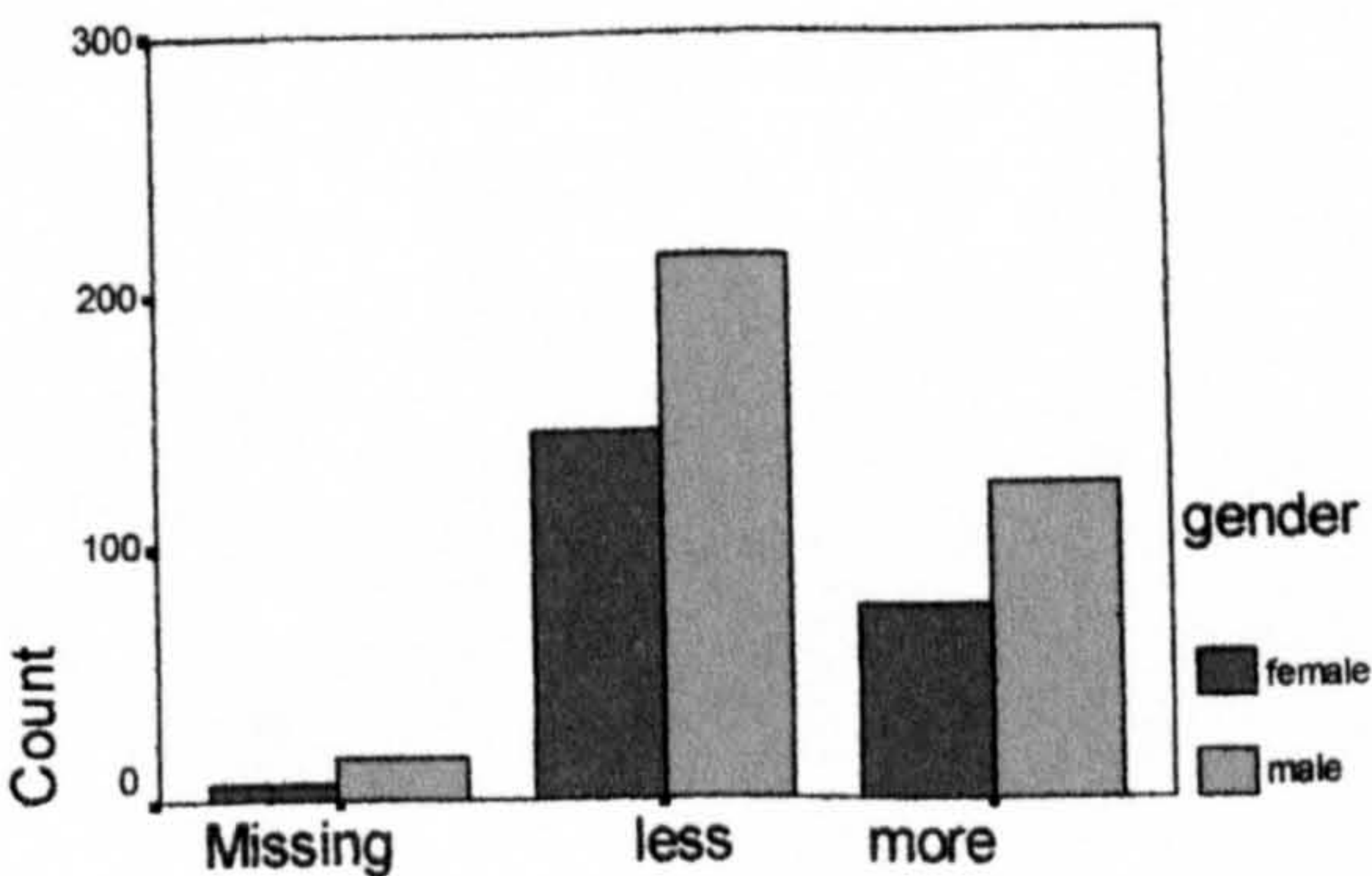
Graph 8f - Interior decoration

China



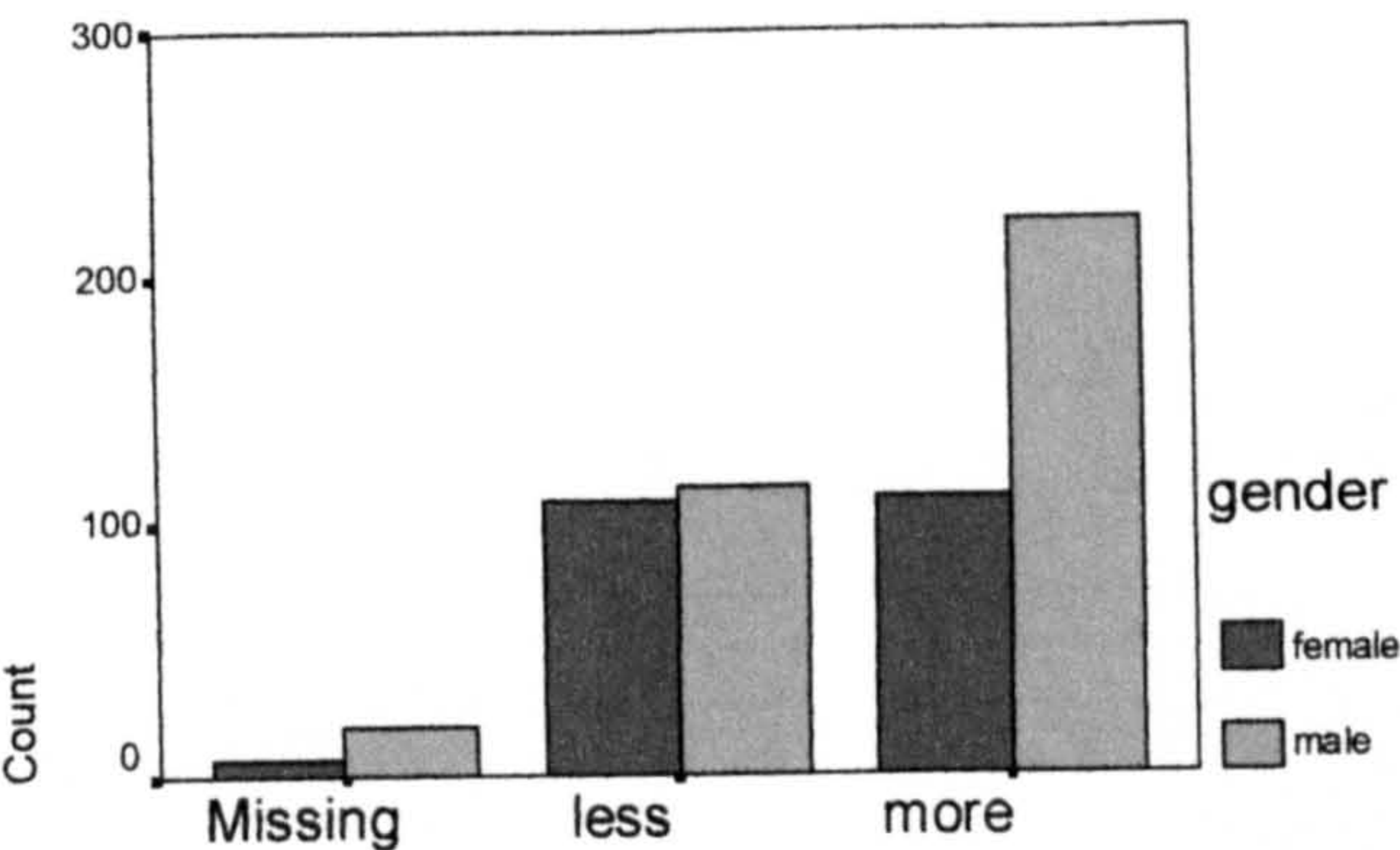
Graph 8g - Food & drink

China



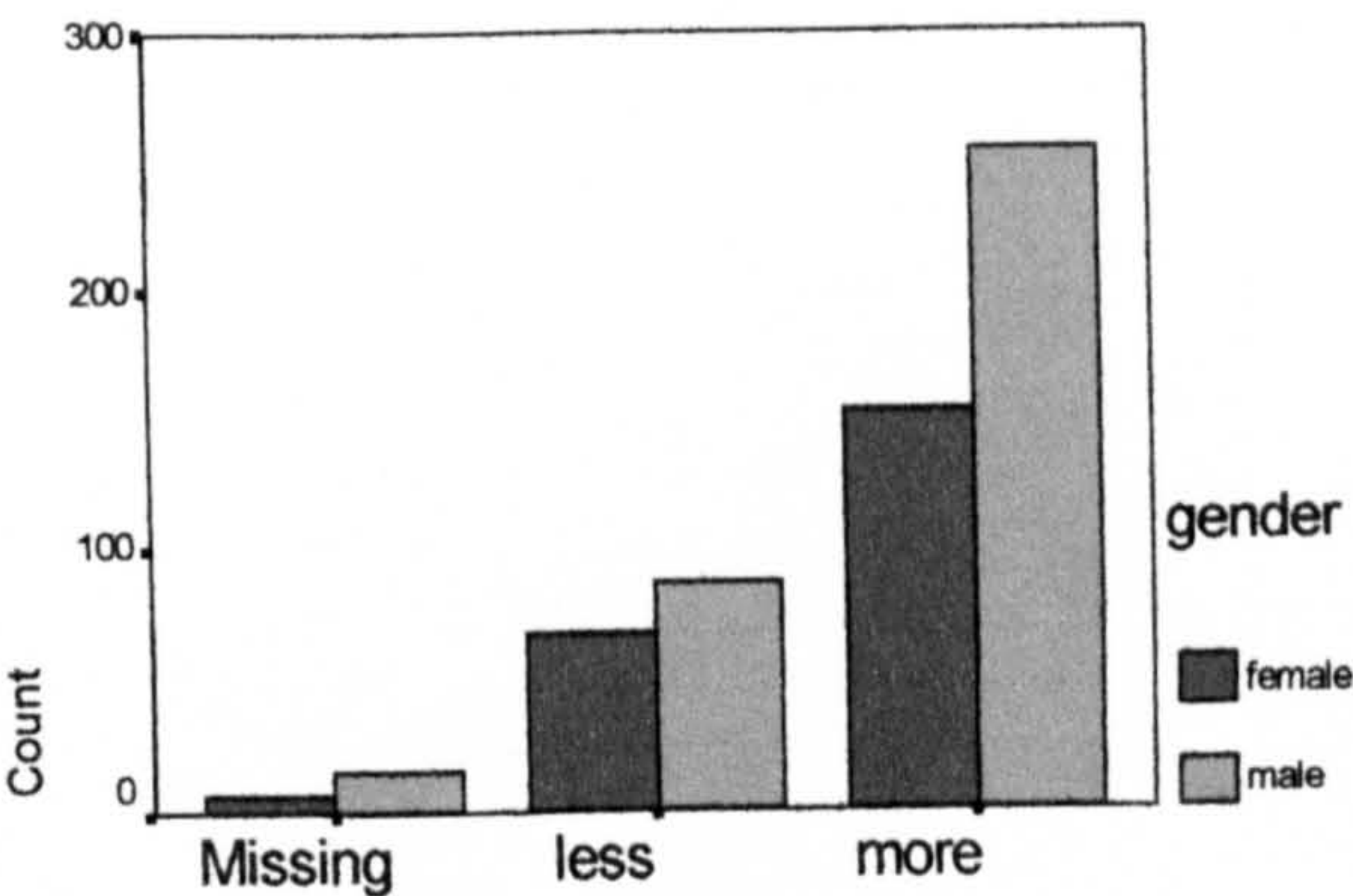
Graph 8h - Cars & motorcycles

China



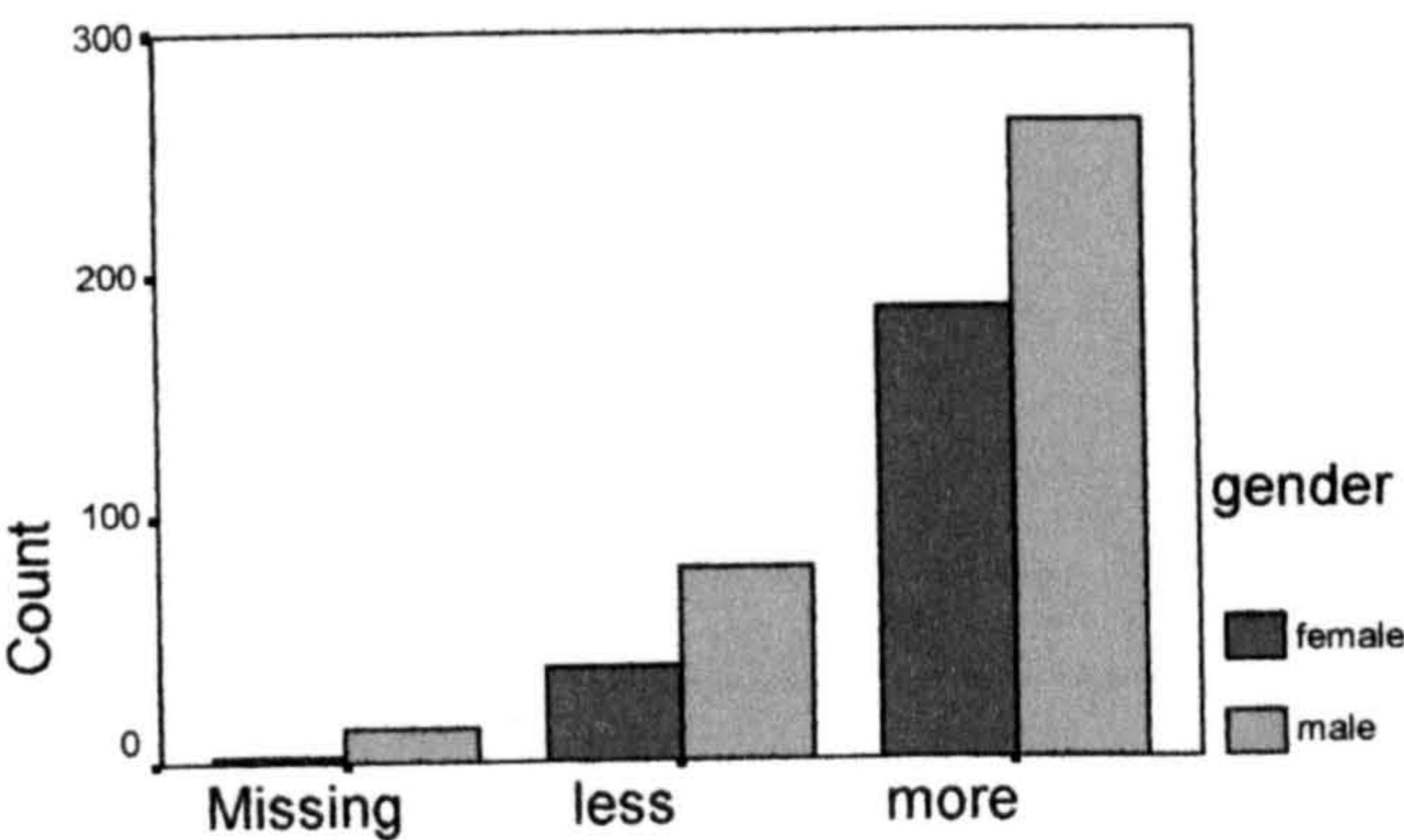
Graph 8i - Computers & office equipment

China



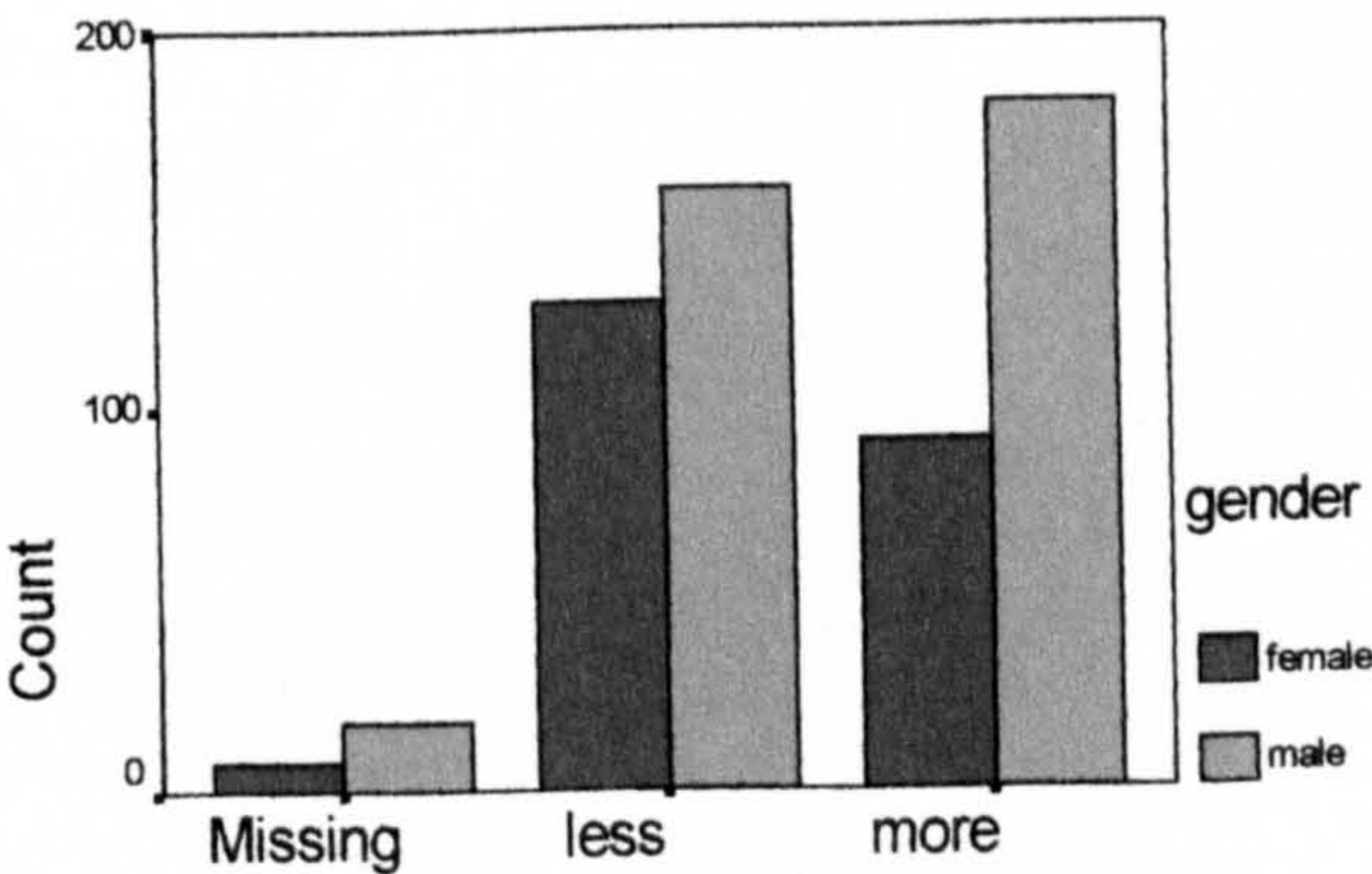
Graph 8j - Education, books & magazines

China



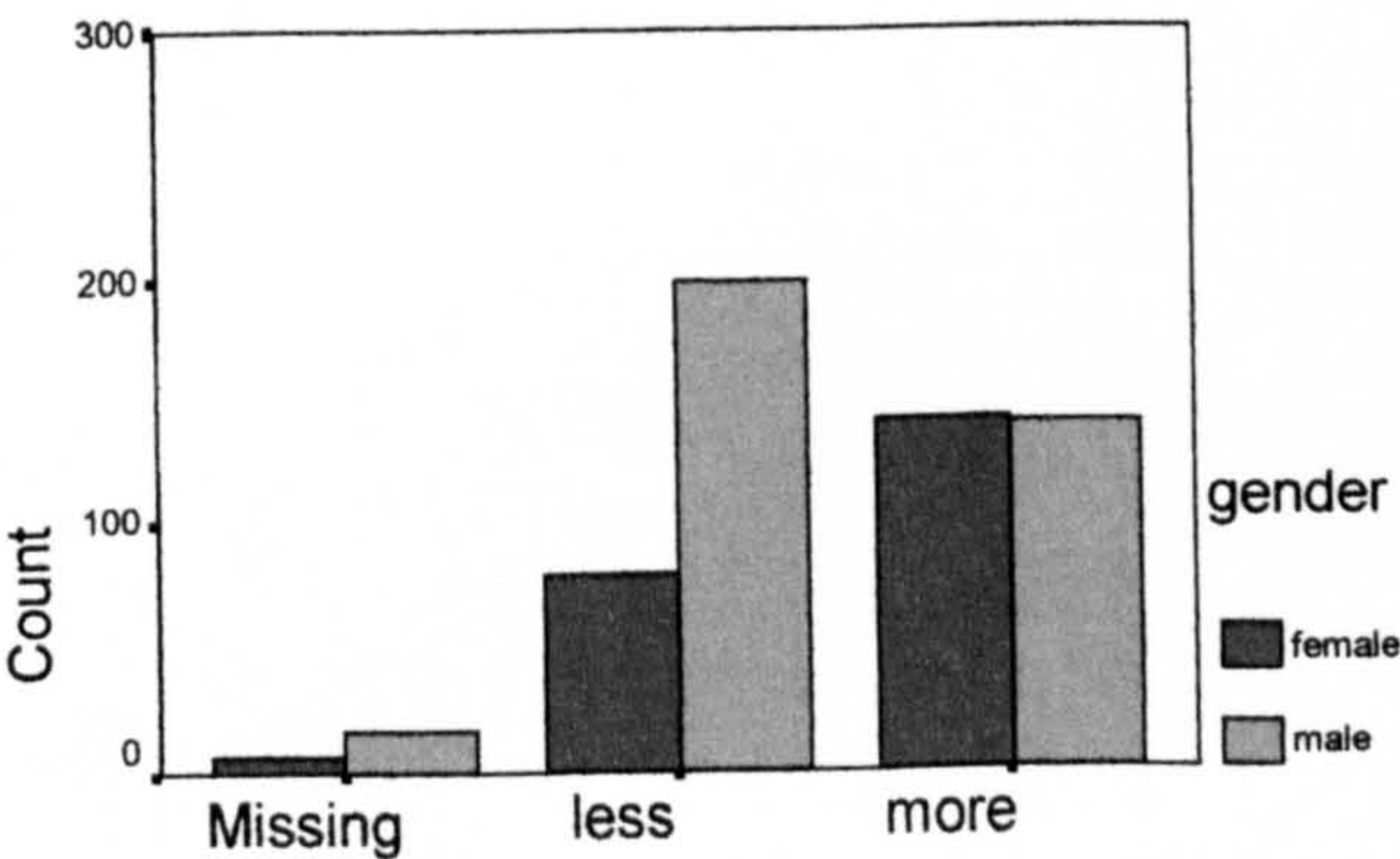
Graph 8k - Audio/visual equipment

China



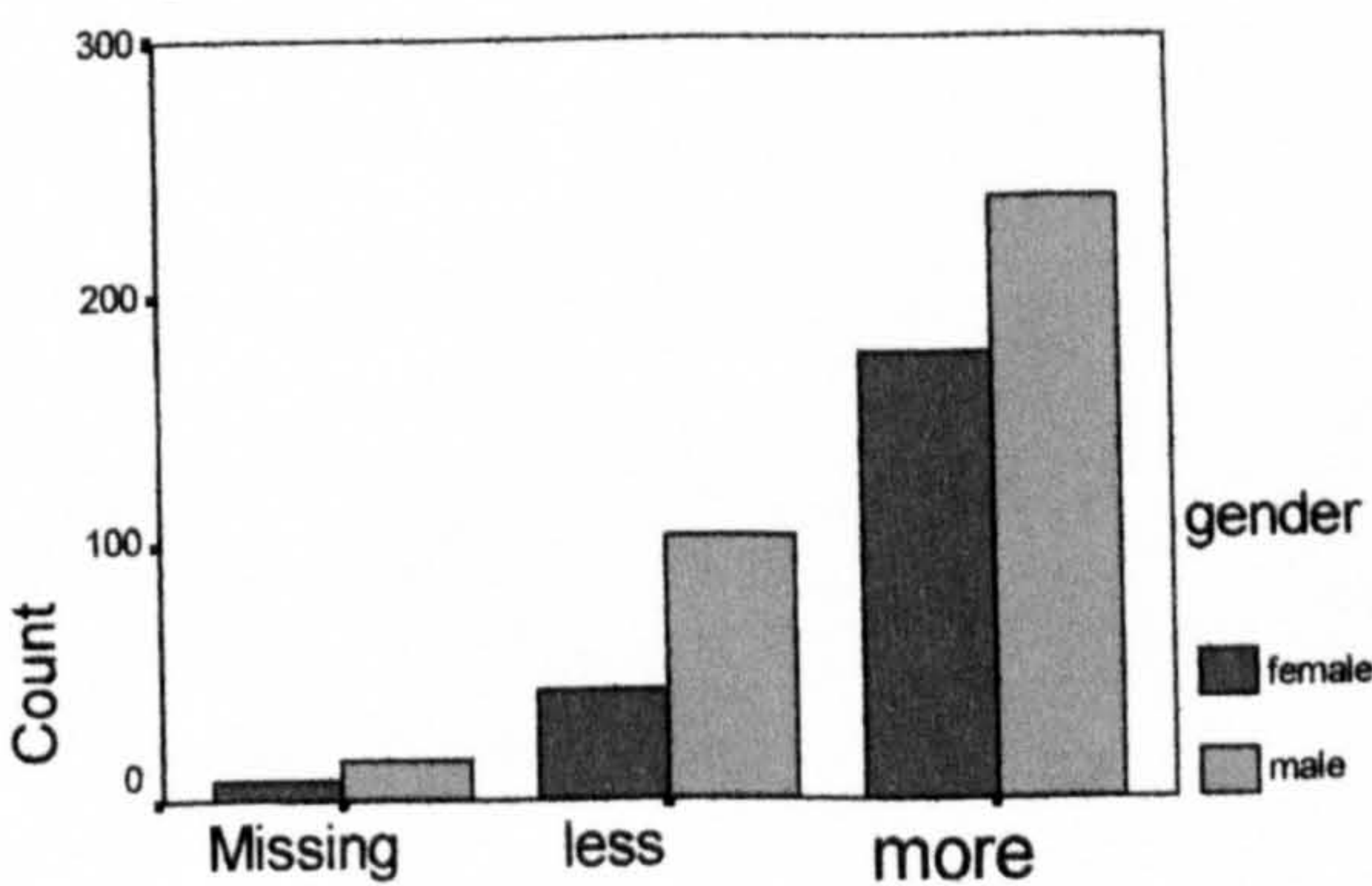
Graph 8l - Fashion information

China



Graph 8m - Entertainment

China

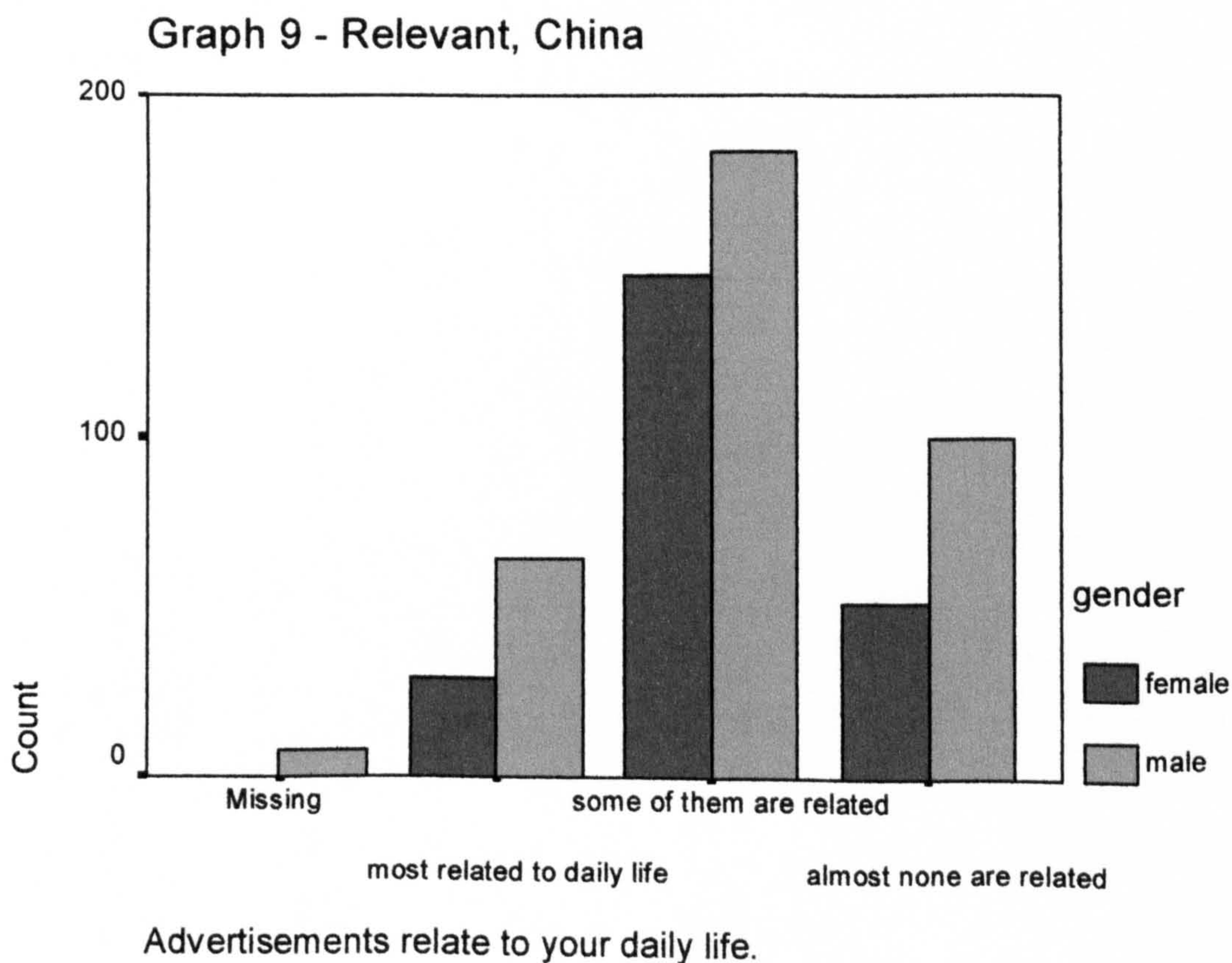


Usefulness of magazine advertising

In order to determine the Chinese new-generation's perceptions of usefulness of magazine advertisements, survey questions asked them to report their opinions on four areas, in terms of relevant, helpful, believable and truthful. The further analyses using Chi-square test indicated that there were some gender effects on usefulness of magazine advertisements based on all four items.

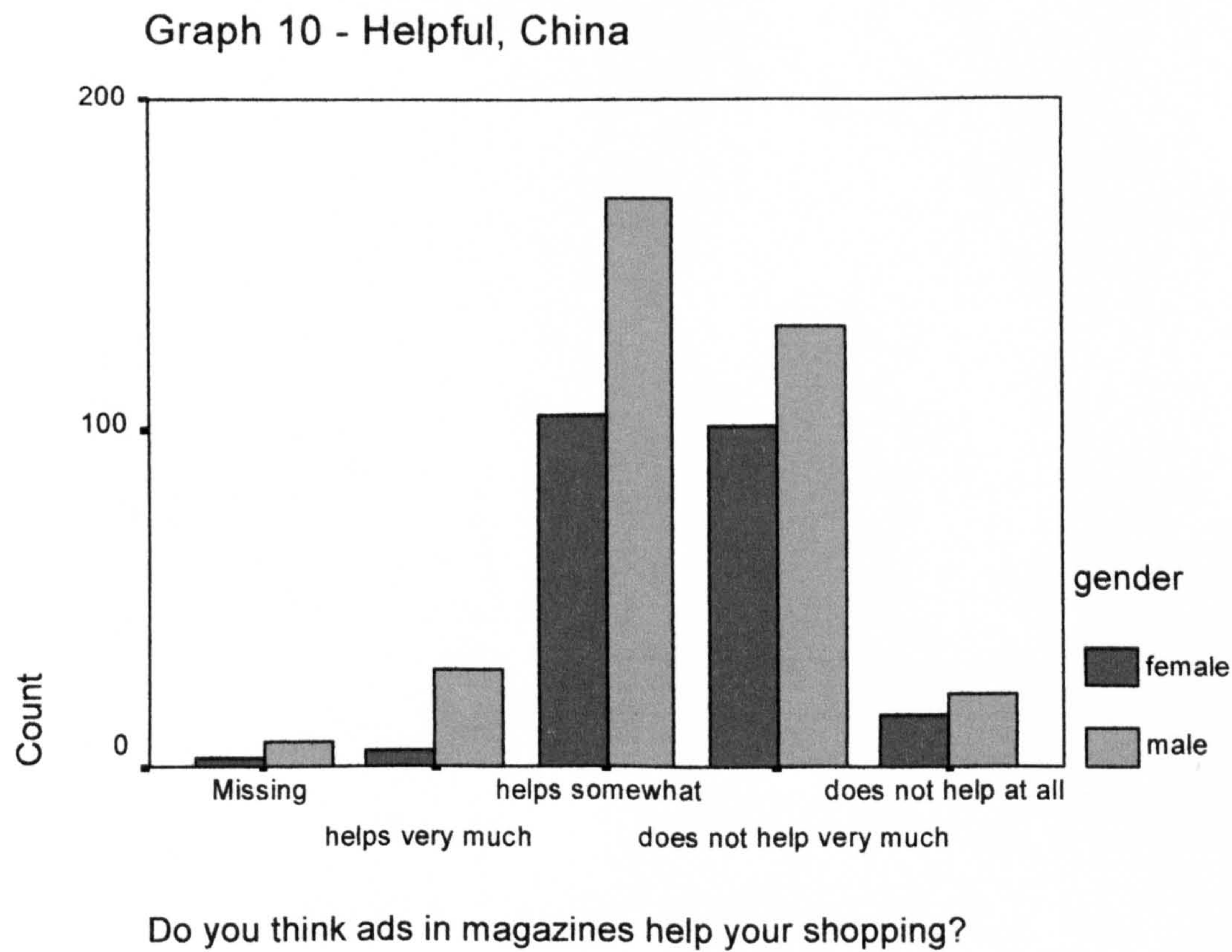
Relevant

The analyses found that the majority of the Chinese new-generation agreed that magazine advertisements were related to their daily life. Among them, 57 percent of respondents said some magazine advertisements were related to their everyday life. Sixteen percent of people agreed that most magazine advertisements were related to their everyday life. Nearly one-third of subjects thought that almost none of the advertisements was related to their daily life. Among gender differences, female respondents were more likely to agree that some of the advertisements were related to their daily life than males ($X^2 = 8.105$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.017$) (see Graph 9).



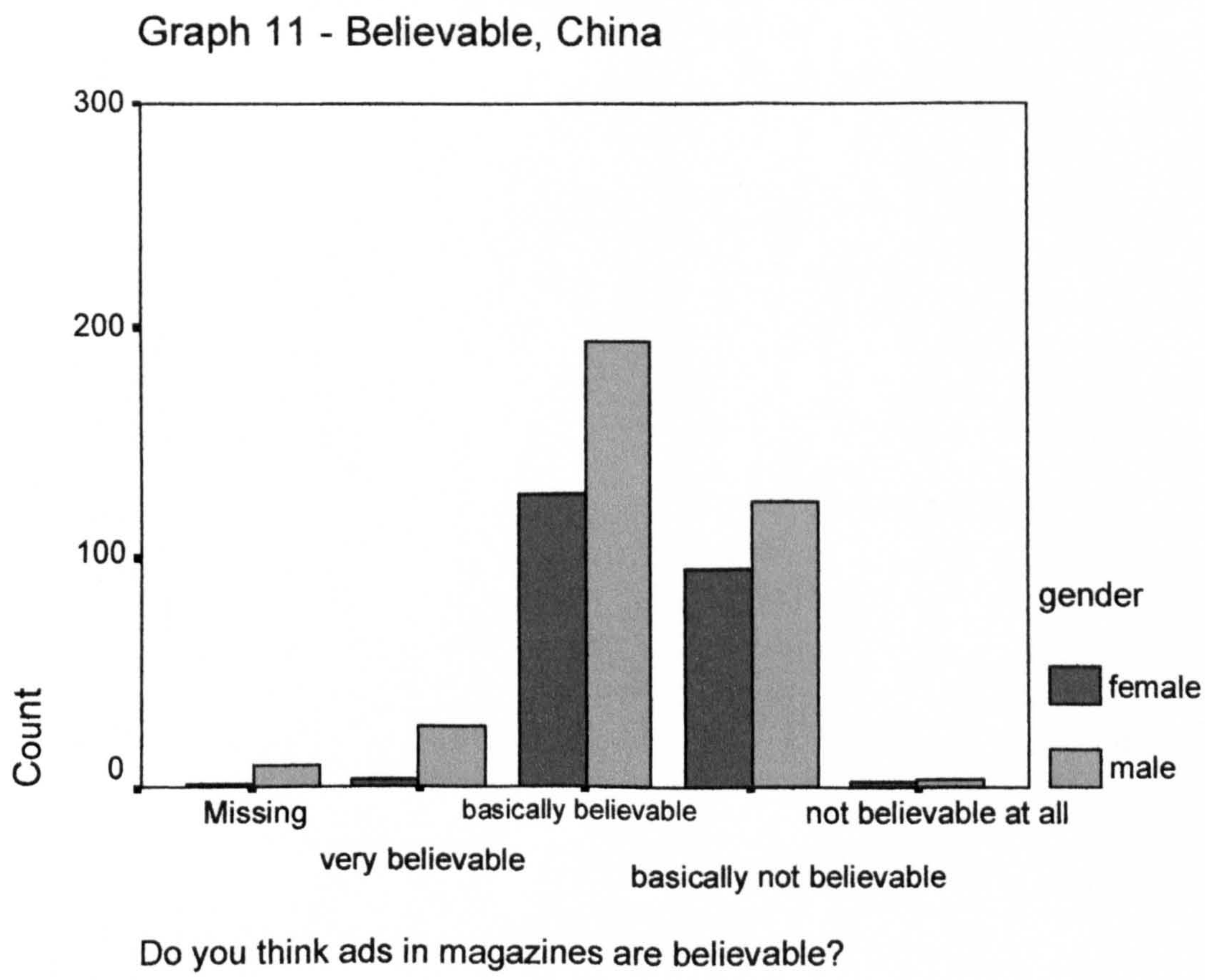
Helpful

Over half of Chinese young adults thought that magazine advertisements helped them to do shopping. Forty-seven percent of respondents agreed that magazine advertisements were useful somewhat for their purchasing. However, nearly forty percent of people disagreed that magazine advertisements were helpful for their shopping. Only 6 percent of the respondents thought that magazine advertising did not help their purchasing at all. The statistics pointed out that young male adults in China agreed more that magazine advertising were more helpful for their shopping ($X^2 = 10.068$; $df = 3$; $p = 0.018$), while female respondents had equal feelings about “help somewhat” and “do not help very much” (see Graph 10).



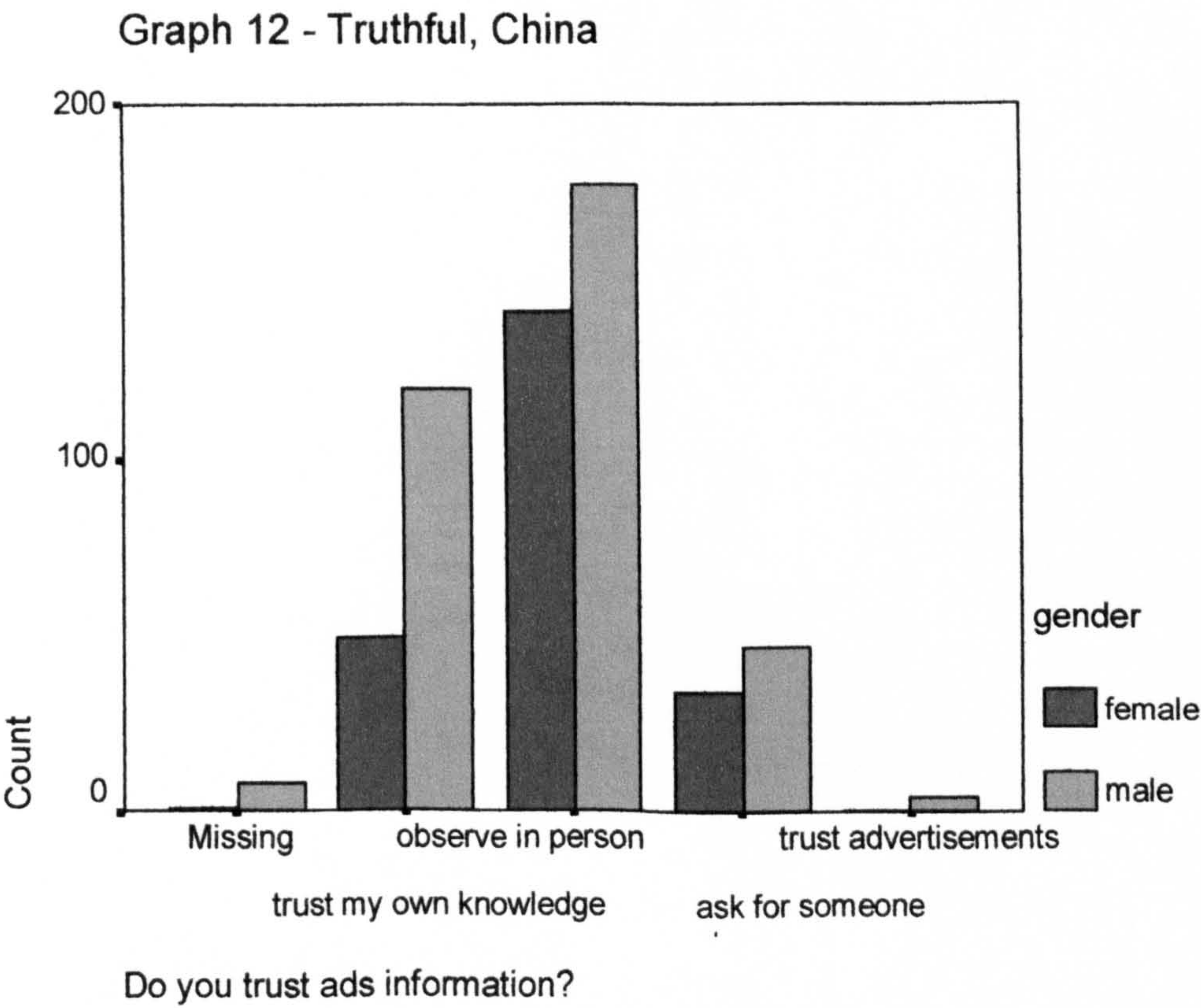
Believable

Overall, the statistics of frequency test indicated that most of the Chinese new-generation believed advertisement information in magazines. Basically, fifty-five percent of people had faith in magazine advertisements, while thirty-seven percent of respondents did not believe magazine advertisements. Less than one percent of people did not believe advertising at all. Graph 11 shows that both genders shared nearly an even percentage of agreement on the believability of magazine advertisements. However, Chi-square test indicated that young female adults in China tended to basically disbelieve magazine advertisement more than male respondents ($X^2 = 11.516$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.003$).



Truthful

Chinese young adults were asked what they would do if product information in magazine advertisements contradicted their opinions about the product. Almost fifty-five percent of people said that they would observe in person around the markets before making the decision. Nearly thirty percent of respondents were very confident about trusting their own knowledge. Fourteen percent of people said they would ask other people’s opinions before deciding to buy the product. Less than one percent of respondents trusted advertising. It would be very interesting to know to what extent the Chinese new-generation show independent judgement about decision-making, although the previous data indicate that most of the Chinese new-generations believed the product information from magazine advertisement. However, the significant differences were that young male adults had more confidence about their own knowledge, while female respondents relied on more information from observing in person before making the decision($X^2 = 10.784$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.05$; see Graph 12).



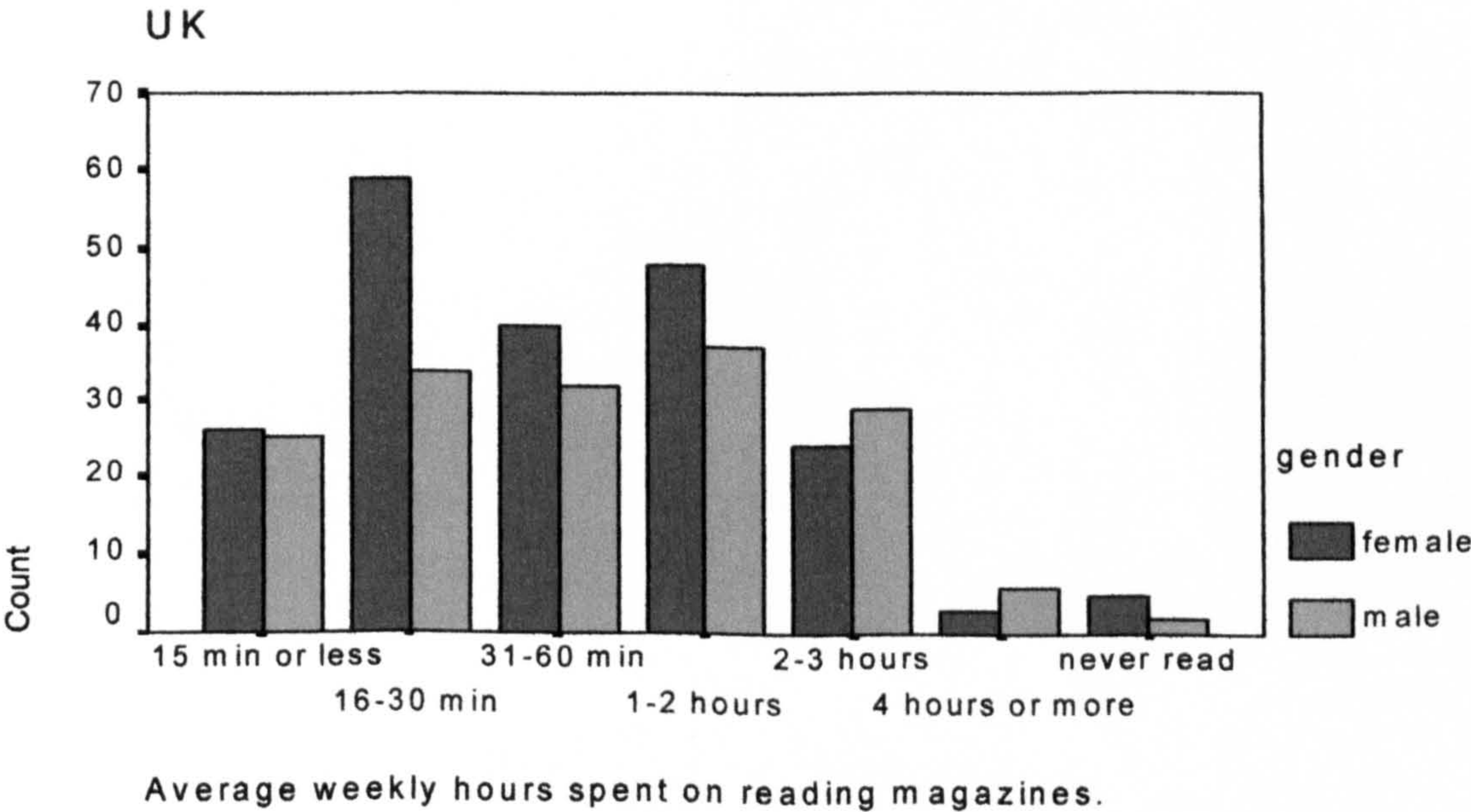
6.2.2 General Information of Advertising Exposure in the UK

In order to interpret effectively, analyses of general information of advertising exposure in the UK are compared with the results from China in the following sub-paragraphs.

Spending time on reading magazines

The statistics of frequency analyses indicated that UK young adults seemed to spend less reading time on magazines than the Chinese. Only 2.4 percent of respondents spent “more than 4 hours” reading magazines weekly compared with 20 percent of Chinese respondents. Almost sixty percent of people spent less than an hour reading magazines on an average weekly basis. Thirty-seven percent of respondents spent at least more than 1-2 hours reading magazines weekly. With easy access to variously magazines in the UK, the statistics, however, showed that the majority of UK young adults (95 percent) spent at least once a week reading the magazine advertisements (see next sub-section for more details). The Chi-square test (see Graph 13) revealed that gender had no effect on reading time of magazines ($X^2 = 7.574$; $df = 6$; $p = 0.271$).

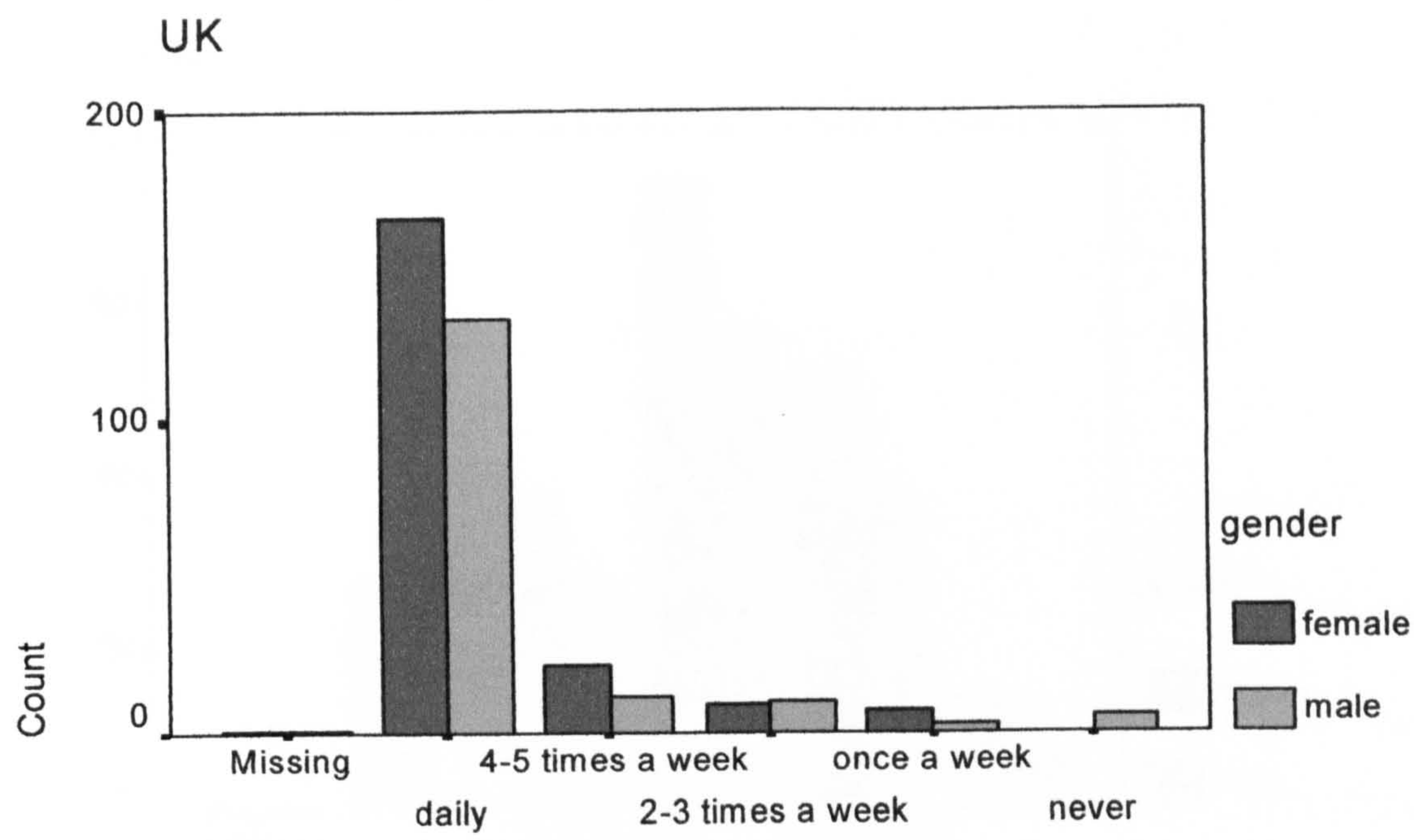
Graph 13 - Time spent on reading magazines



Ranking advertising media exposure

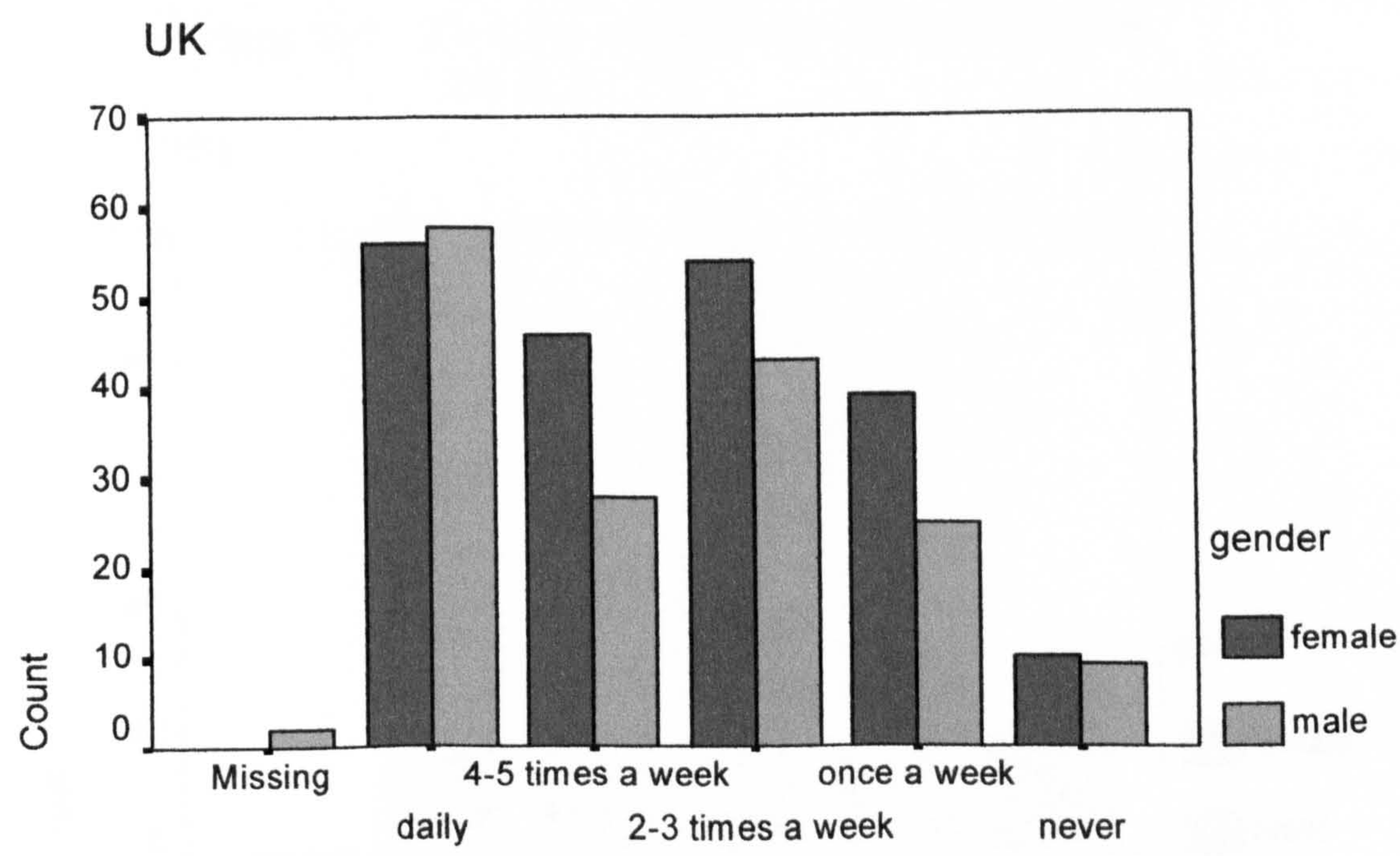
Inspection of the statistics of frequency test for exposure to advertising media showed that young adults in the UK were more exposed to advertising due to the time they spent on watching TV (80.8 percent). This seems the most common way to perceive advertising information rather than through newspapers (30.8 percent), radio (37.8 percent), and magazines (18.1 percent) on a daily basis. Young adults in the UK obviously spent a considerable amount of time watching TV. A high ranked advertising media exposure was caused by a high percentage (90%) of time spent watching TV. Eighty percent of the UK respondents watched TV everyday and nearly ten percent of people spent at least 4-5 times a week watching TV. Exposure to the newspapers and magazines advertisement was similar to the Chinese responses, all but two-thirds of the UK respondents spent at least 2-3 times a week reading newspapers (77%) and magazines (70%). Further Chi-square analyses showed that there were no significant gender differences on the subject of magazine advertising exposure ($X^2 = 7.062$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.133$). In contrast to the Chinese new-generation, statistics of the frequency test showed that the UK young adults seemed to spend much more time on listening to the radio. Nearly forty percent of respondents said that they listened to the radio everyday, while only thirteen percent of them never listened to the radio. It might imply that the young adults in the UK have more their living space or enjoy the radio being played around the house. Furthermore, the frequency analyses also pointed out that over two-thirds of UK subjects listened to the radio 2-3 times a week. In China, young adults have increasing exposure to the media throughout their lives, however, UK young adults seemed to have considerably more time to spend on mass media than Chinese respondents (see Graph 14a – 14d, pp.153 - 154).

Graph 14a - Ranking advertising media exposure (TV)



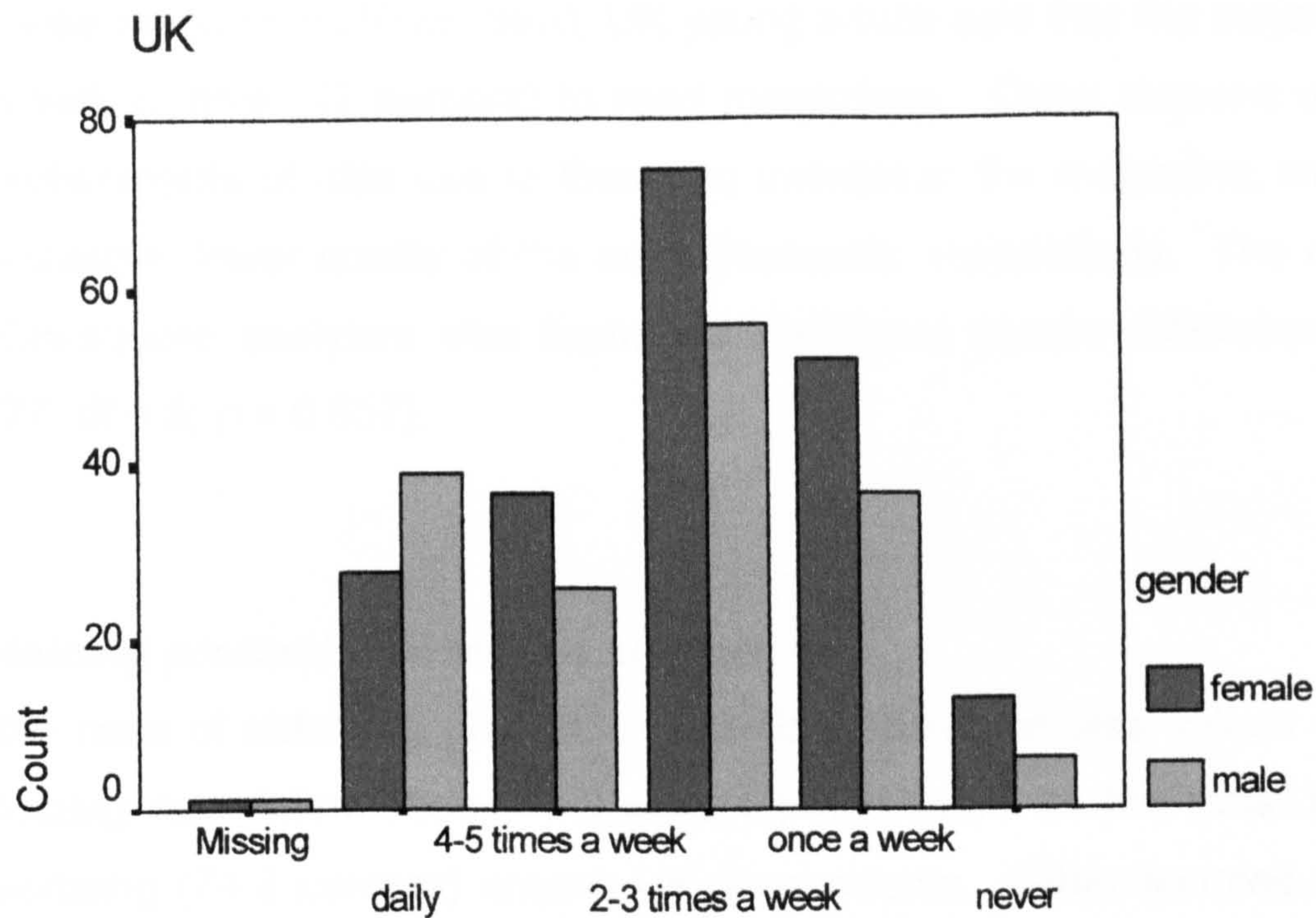
How often do you watch TV commercials?

Graph 14b - Ranking advertising media exposure (Newspaper)



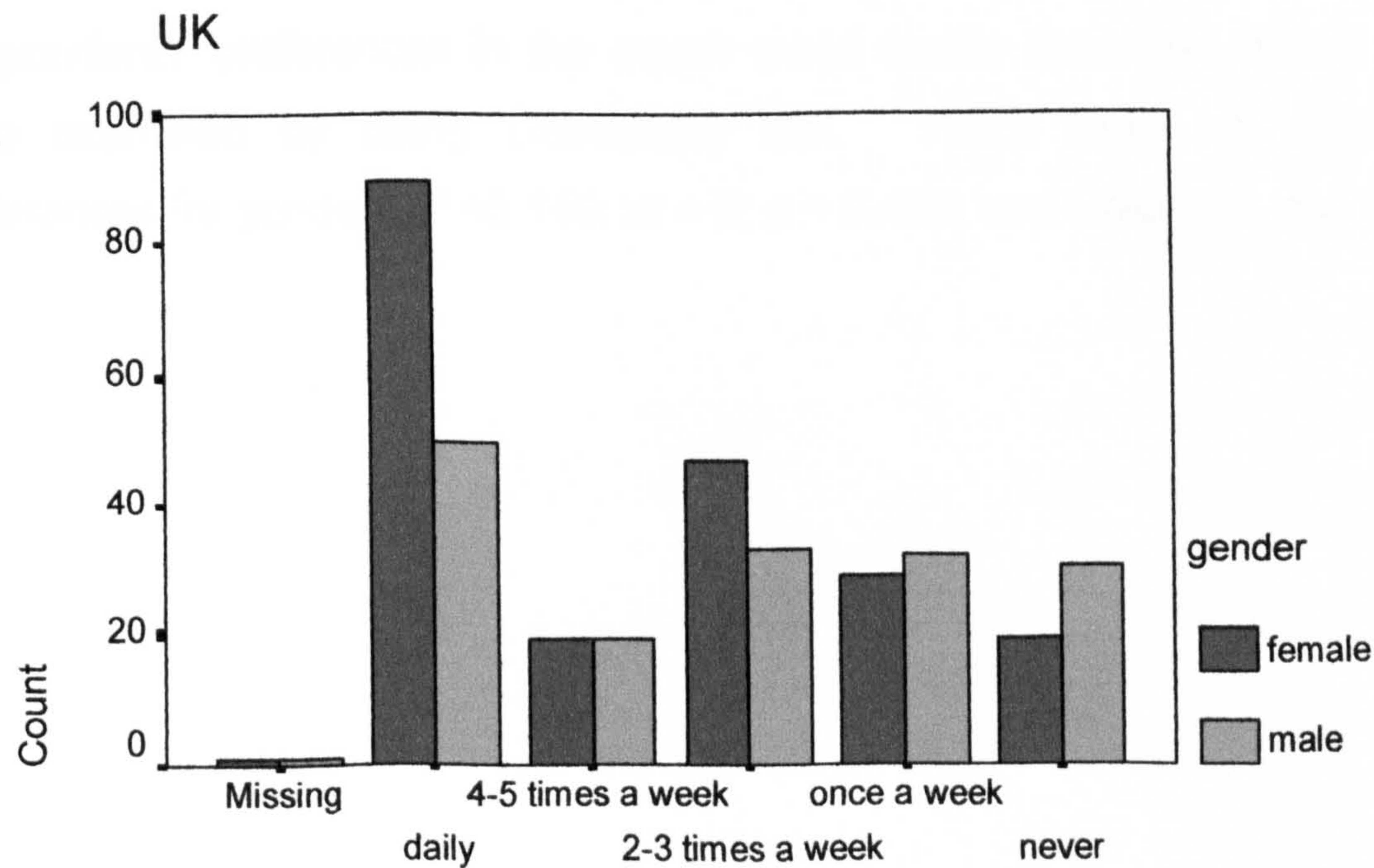
How often do you read newspaper advertisements?

Graph 14c – Ranking advertising media exposure (Magazine)



How often do you read magazine advertisements?

Graph 14d - Ranking advertising media exposure (Radio)



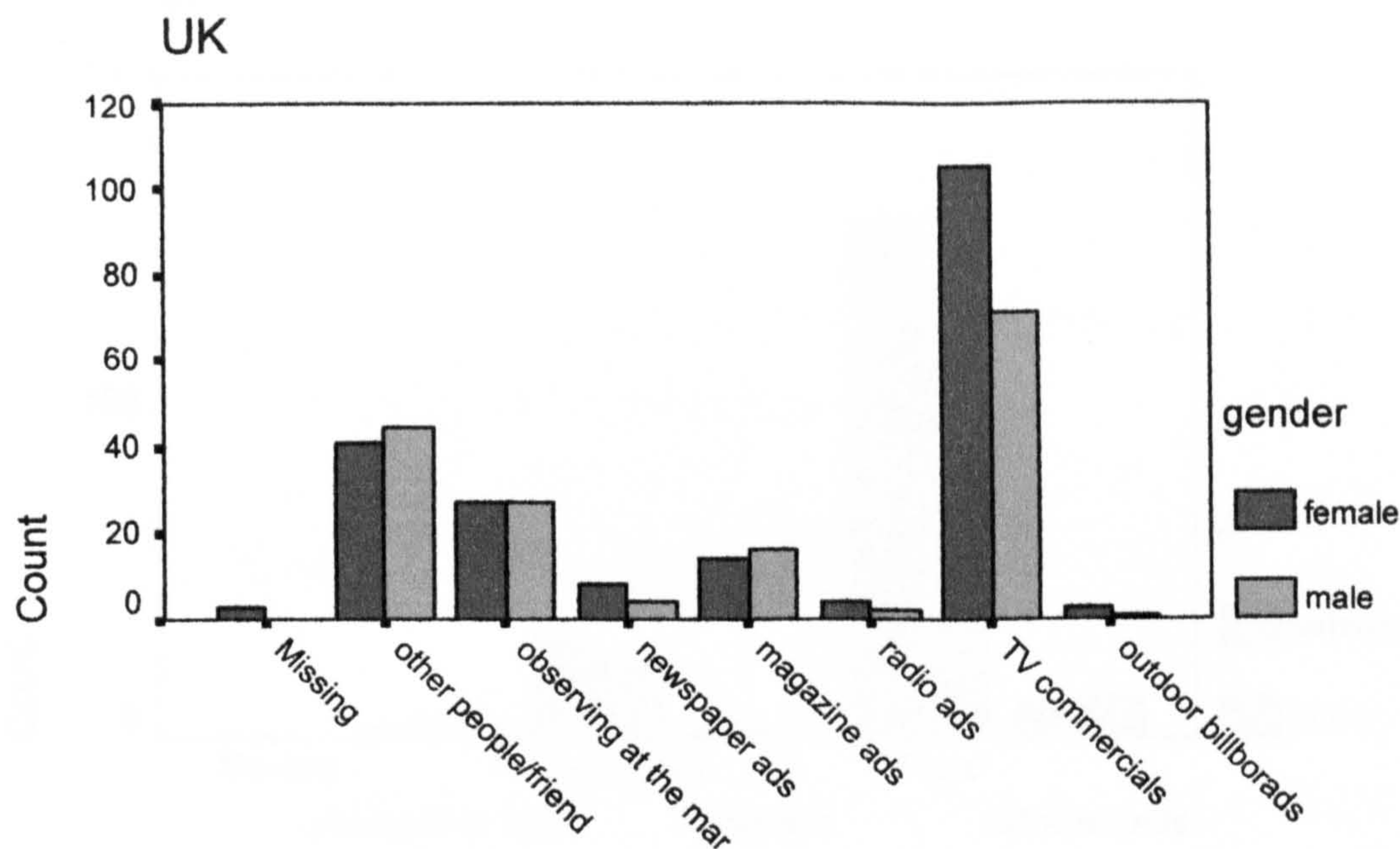
How often do you listen to radio advertisements?

According to the statistical report, thirty percent of UK respondents read magazines either “once a week” or “never” on weekly basis. Similar to Chinese responses (10 percent), UK young adults said that the major reason was lack of time (12 percent) to read magazines. Other reasons were the advertisements of little use to them, no interest in the magazine, magazine unavailable, lower quality of the advertisements, respectively. The statistics of Chi-square analyses also found no significant gender differences ($X^2 = 3.277$; $df = 5$; $p = 0.657$).

Obtaining product information sources

In the case of obtaining product information, television was valued most for collecting new information (47.6 percent) and rated as the most favoured advertising (74.3 percent) among UK respondents. Other sources rated for new product information were “other people/friends” (23 percent), “observing at the market” (14.6 percent), “magazine advertisements” (8.1 percent), “newspaper advertisements” (3.2 percent), “radio advertisements” (1.6 percent) and outdoor billboards (1.1 percent). The findings revealed that UK participants watched more television and concurrently also turned to friends as more important information sources. Relationships among genders of UK respondents’ preferences in the seven mass media described above were also examined by using Chi-square test. There were no significant differences for gender ($X^2 = 6.140$; $df = 6$; $p = 0.408$; see Graph 15, pp. 156.).

Graph 15 - Obtaining product information sources

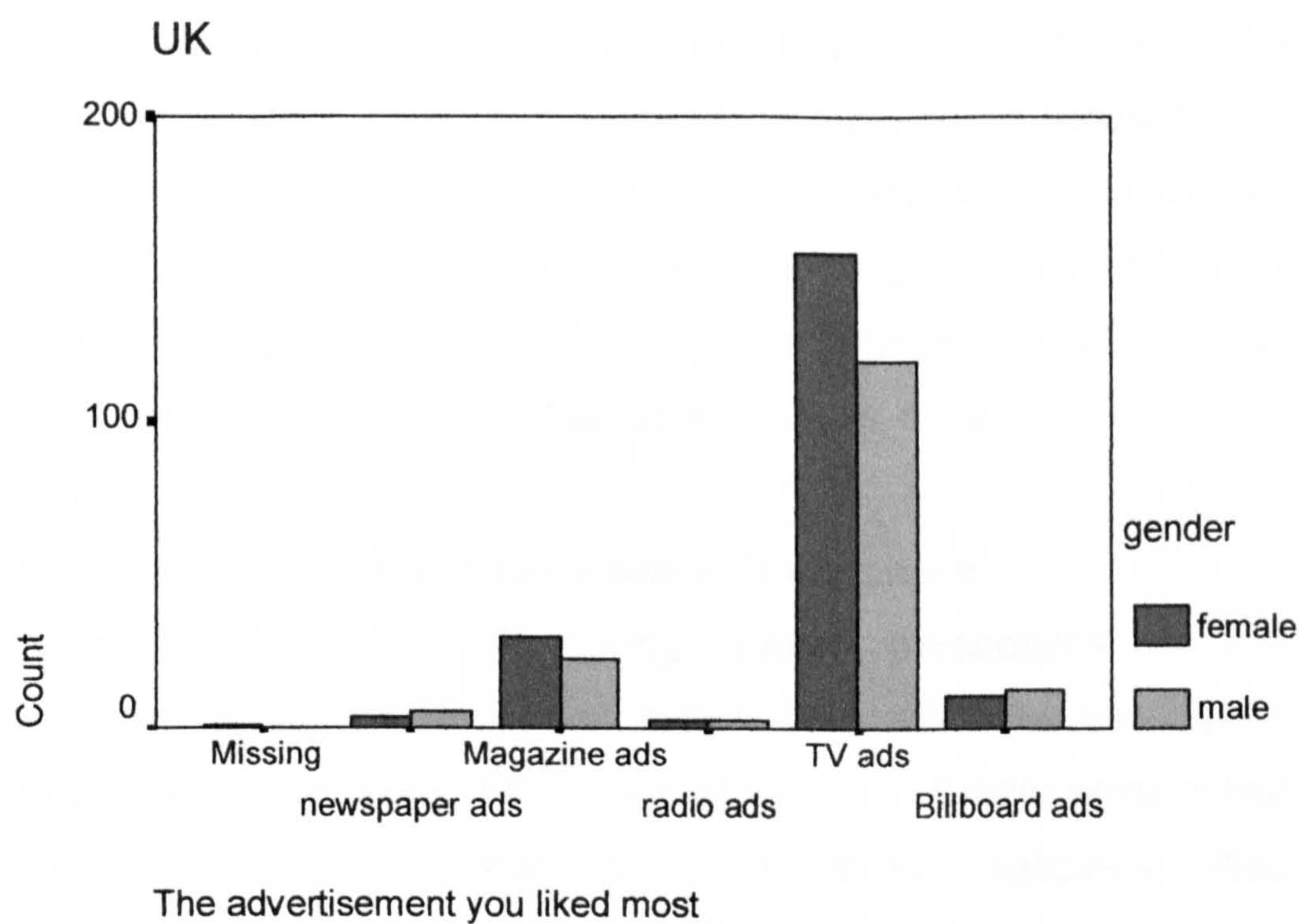


The main channel you obtain product information.

Type of commercial/advertising

The statistics of the frequency test revealed similar results as the Chinese responses. The UK respondents chose TV commercials (74.3 percent) as the most favourable type of advertising, and also rated magazine advertising (14.6 percent) as the second most popular advertising vehicles among young adults in the UK. Other types of commercial/advertising were ranked as billboard advertisements (6.5 percent), newspaper advertisements (2.7 percent), and radio advertisements (1.6 percent), respectively. Inspection of the Chi-square test further indicated these were no significant among the types of commercials/advertising ($X^2 = 2.108$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.716$; Graph 16, pp.157).

Graph 16 - Type of commercial/advertising



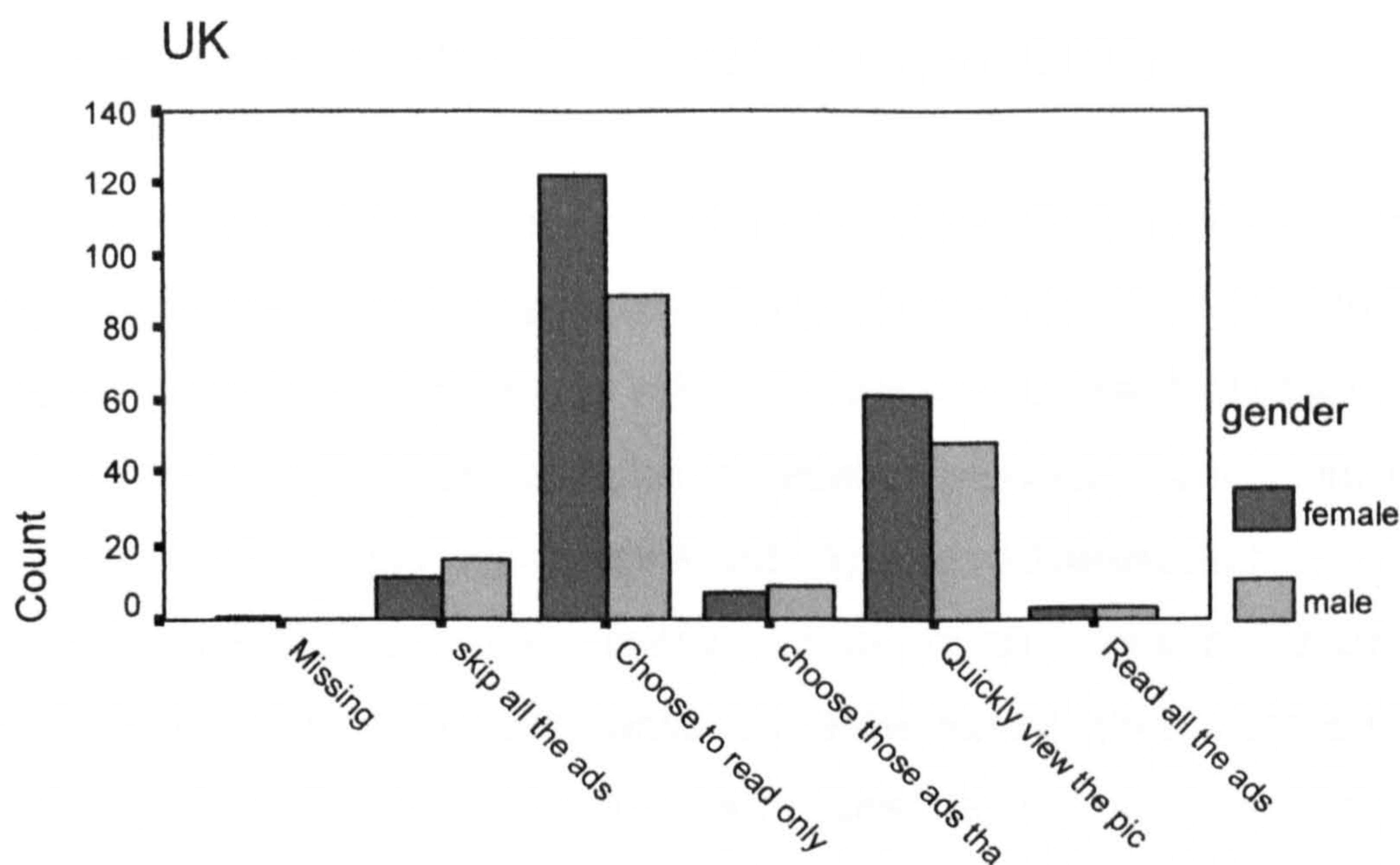
In order to identify UK young adults' perceptions of their preferred types of advertising from a choice of different mass media, the survey asked UK respondents to briefly describe their opinions on the reason for their choice. Overall, young adults in the UK were attracted by TV commercials because of visual stimuli, which they described as lively, colourful, beautiful, appealing, realistic, bright and background music, and fast, up-to-date and convenient. Furthermore, UK respondents thought that the impression on sex and humour messages was very attractive to them. They enjoyed these visual images to stimulate their sense of interest in particular products. UK magazine advertisements had similar effects to TV commercials. UK magazine advertisements were more colourful, better designed, and better quality paper and imagery to impress their customers compared with magazines in China. Most UK billboard advertisements were posted on the train or underground stations. People might watch/read billboard advertisements while waiting for their trains. Billboard advertisements did not gain as much attention as TV commercials or magazine advertisements

partly because of exposure time and position in the UK. UK respondents thought that billboard advertisements tried to use very simple words or attractive pictures to impress them, but few of them really noticed the existence of billboard advertising. Most UK young adults thought newspaper advertisements were less attractive because they were less colourful and were hardly noticed. Although British young adults spent much more time listening to the radio, they selected radio advertisements as the last choice because catching information on radio was not as easy.

Perceptions of magazine advertisements exposure

In order to determine UK young adults' perceptions of magazine advertisements; survey questions asked their attitudes and opinions on magazine advertisements. Firstly, young adults in Britain were asked about their attitudes when they read advertisements in magazines. Almost 60 percent of people chose to read only those advertisements that interested them. Nearly thirty percent of respondents said they quickly viewed the pictures/titles from magazine advertisements. Over 7 percent of participants said they skipped all the advertisements, while 4 percent of people chose advertisements particularly needed for information. Very few respondents (1.6 percent) read all the advertisements in magazines. Further Chi-square test revealed that there were no significant gender differences among attitudes towards reading magazine advertisements ($X^2 = 3.808$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.433$; Graph 17a, pp. 159).

Graph 17a - Perceptions of magazine ads exposure



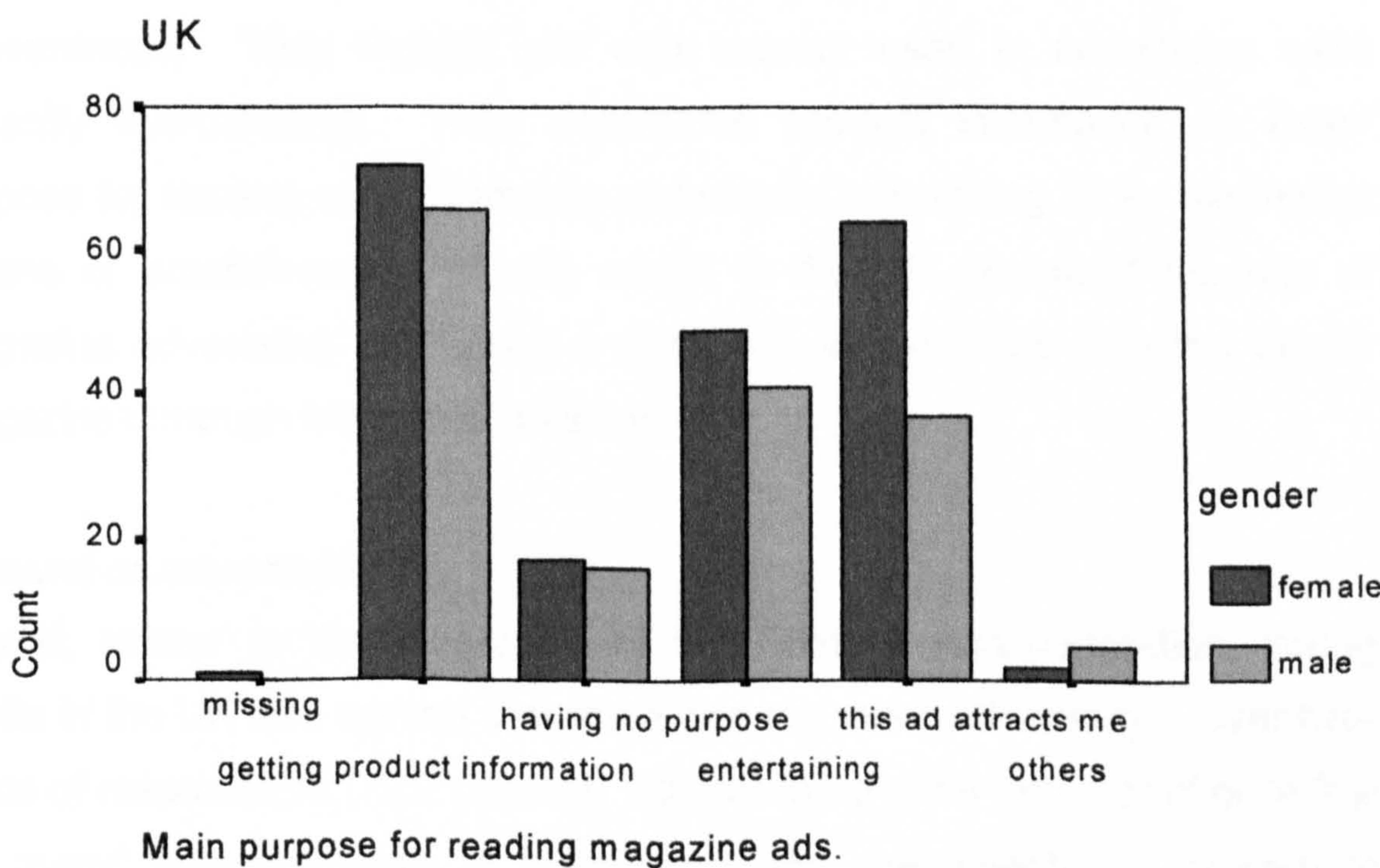
When you read magazine's adv, you will

Secondly, in order to determine the issues the UK young adults pay more attention to when reading magazine advertisements, they were asked to report the two most important subjects from advertisement messages. Similar to Chinese responses, near sixty percent of people responded that “product features” was the primary reason to gain their attention. Advertisements that contained “the artistic appearance of the product” were rated higher by 47 percent of young adults in the UK. However, near 30 percent of people paid attention to advertisements because of the attractiveness of actors or models. Most UK participants (91.4 percent) neither notice the format of “slice-of-life story” advertisements or “addresses of manufacturers or stores” in magazine advertising. Consequently, there was a considerable amount of attention paid to product features and artistic appearance, which meant the UK young adults tended to like more modern, unique and fashionable products, and prefer highly designed stylistic advertisements. Further Chi-square analysis showed that the majority of women were more attracted by product features ($X^2 = 8.911$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.003$), while men held no particular preferences on the subject of product

features. There were highly significant differences indicated that male respondents favoured more attractive actors or models in magazine advertisements than females ($X^2 = 28.496$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$).

Thirdly, UK respondents were asked what about their main reason for reading magazine advertisements in order to obtain greater understanding of the role of magazine advertising. While thirty-seven percent of respondents viewed magazine advertisements as accessing product information, nearly thirty percent of people were attracted by the advertisements. Unlike Chinese responses, the findings revealed that young adults in the UK were more likely to view advertisements as entertaining (24.3 percent) and enjoyed reading them. Given other reasons for reading magazine advertisements, only 9 percent of the UK participants showed having no purpose to read advertisements in magazines. There were no significant differences between genders ($X^2 = 5.445$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.245$; Graph 17b).

Graph 17b - Perceptions of magazine ads exposure



Finally, the survey asked UK young adults why magazines contain advertisements. Most of the respondents (64.9 percent) viewed advertisements as making a profit for magazine itself. Other reasons were rated as expanding revenue to produce better quality magazines (35.7 percent), providing product information/service (28.1 percent) and serving firms by helping to market merchandise (23.8 percent). In contrast to male participants, female respondents did not think that the better quality of magazines were generated by the revenues of magazine advertising, while male participants had no opinions on this subject ($X^2 = 13.996$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$). On the purpose of accessing product information, males had very different opinions, they disagreed that the function of magazine advertising was to provide the product information ($X^2 = 16.348$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$). Most male respondents were also more disagreeable about the reason that magazines advertisements were to help firms promote their products ($X^2 = 9.045$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.003$).

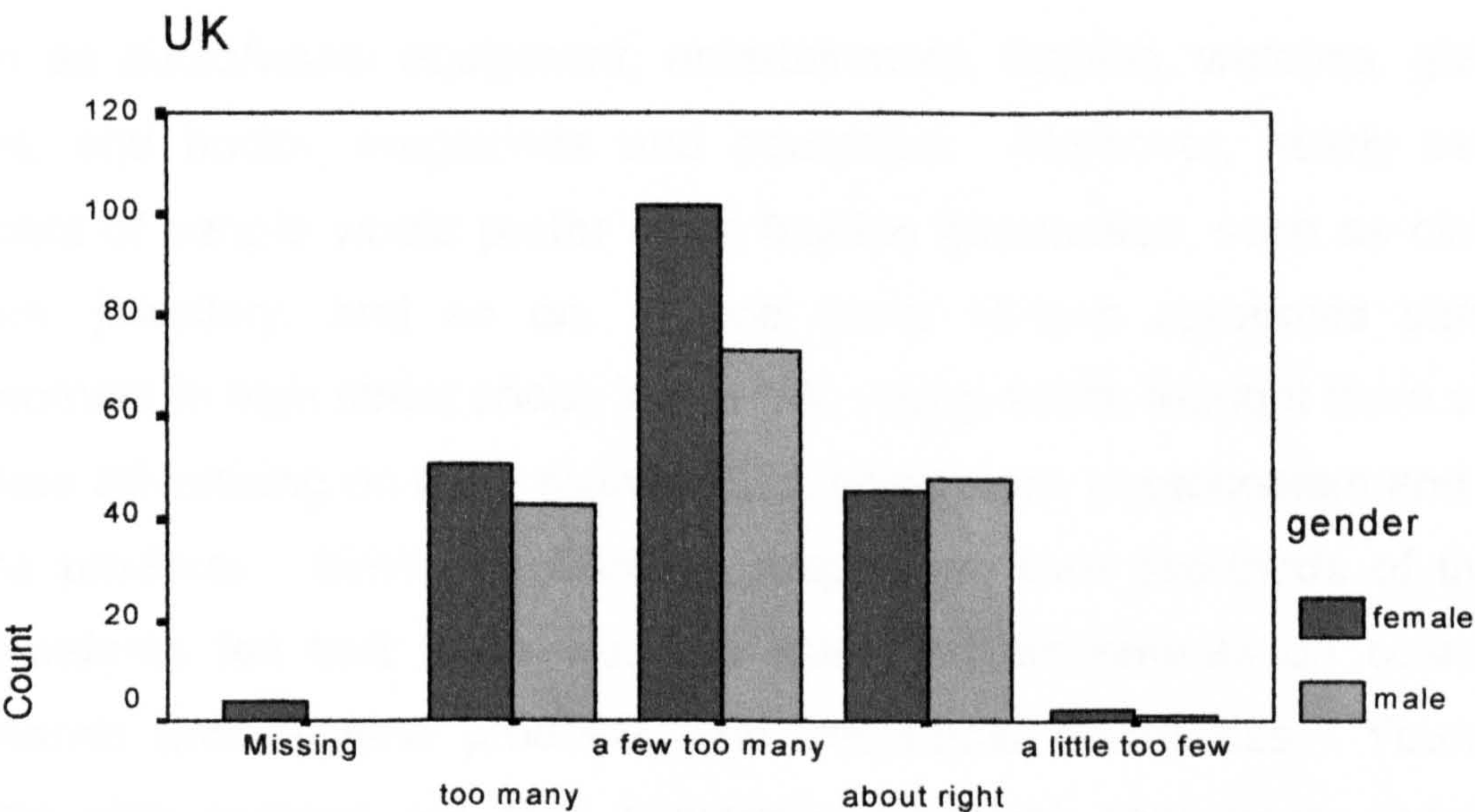
In general, British young adults paid more attention to modern and well-designed advertisements, especially the product features and artistic appearances. They thought sex and humour used in advertising were instantly eye-catching. They considered product information as major purpose for reading advertisements and viewed advertising as an alternative means of entertainment. Young adults in the UK perceived the role of magazine advertising as making a profit and also resulted in better quality magazines through increased revenue.

Amount of advertising

Overall, similar to the responses of the Chinese new-generation, young adults in the UK also agreed that there was too much advertising. Over two-thirds of respondents (72.7 percent) felt that there were “too many” or “a few too many” advertisements in magazines, and over twenty-five percent of people thought the number of advertisement was ‘about right’. Further examination by Chi-square indicated there were no significant gender effects

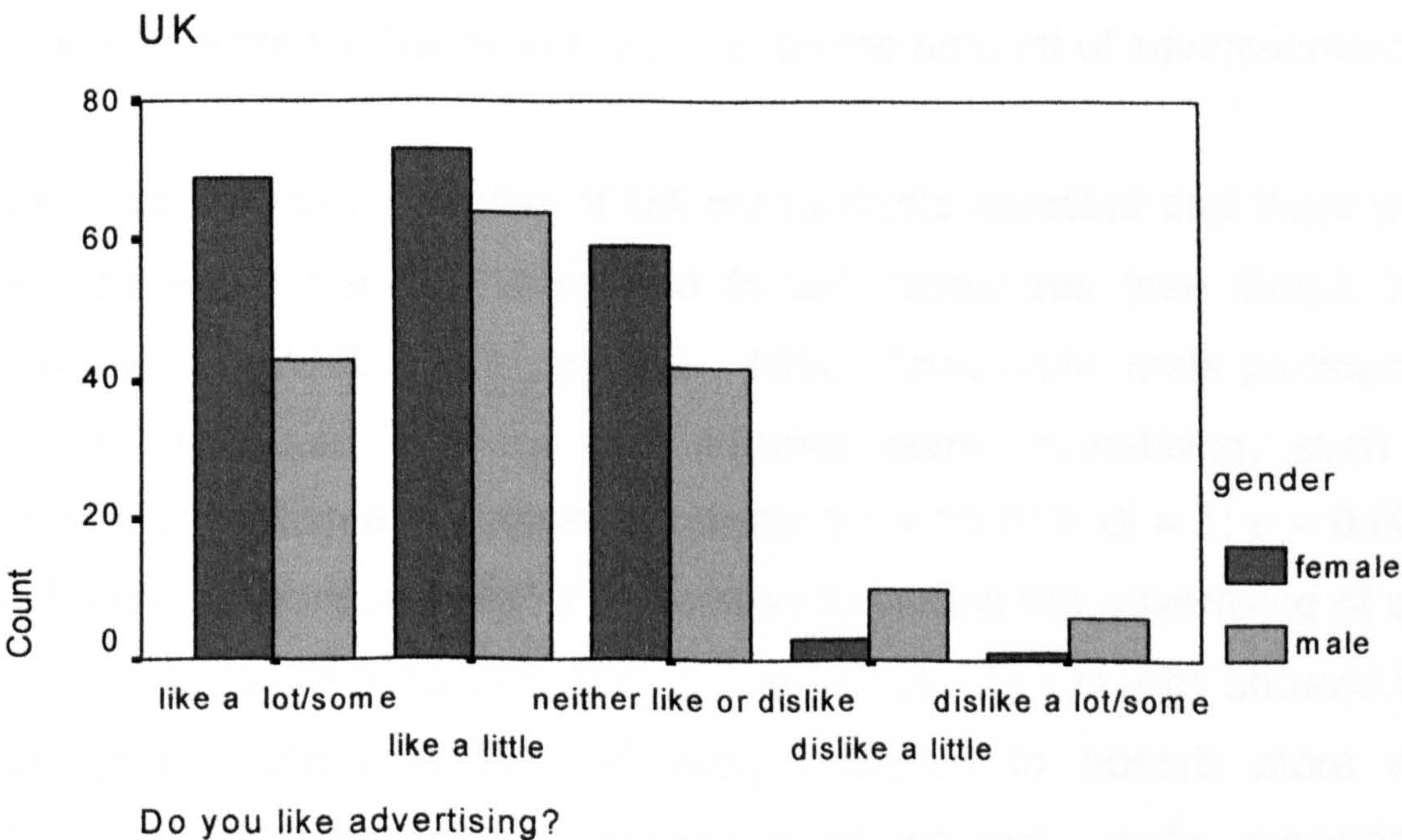
on the number of advertisements in the UK ($X^2 = 2.344$; $df = 3$; $p = 0.504$; Graph 18). Unlike Chinese responses, UK young adults were very positive about advertising. Two-thirds of people said that they liked advertising, while only 27 percent of subjects held in neutral opinions on advertising. The Chi-square test revealed that females appeared to like advertising more than males ($X^2 = 12.653$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.013$; see Graph 19).

Graph 18 - Amount of advertising



The number of ads in the UK

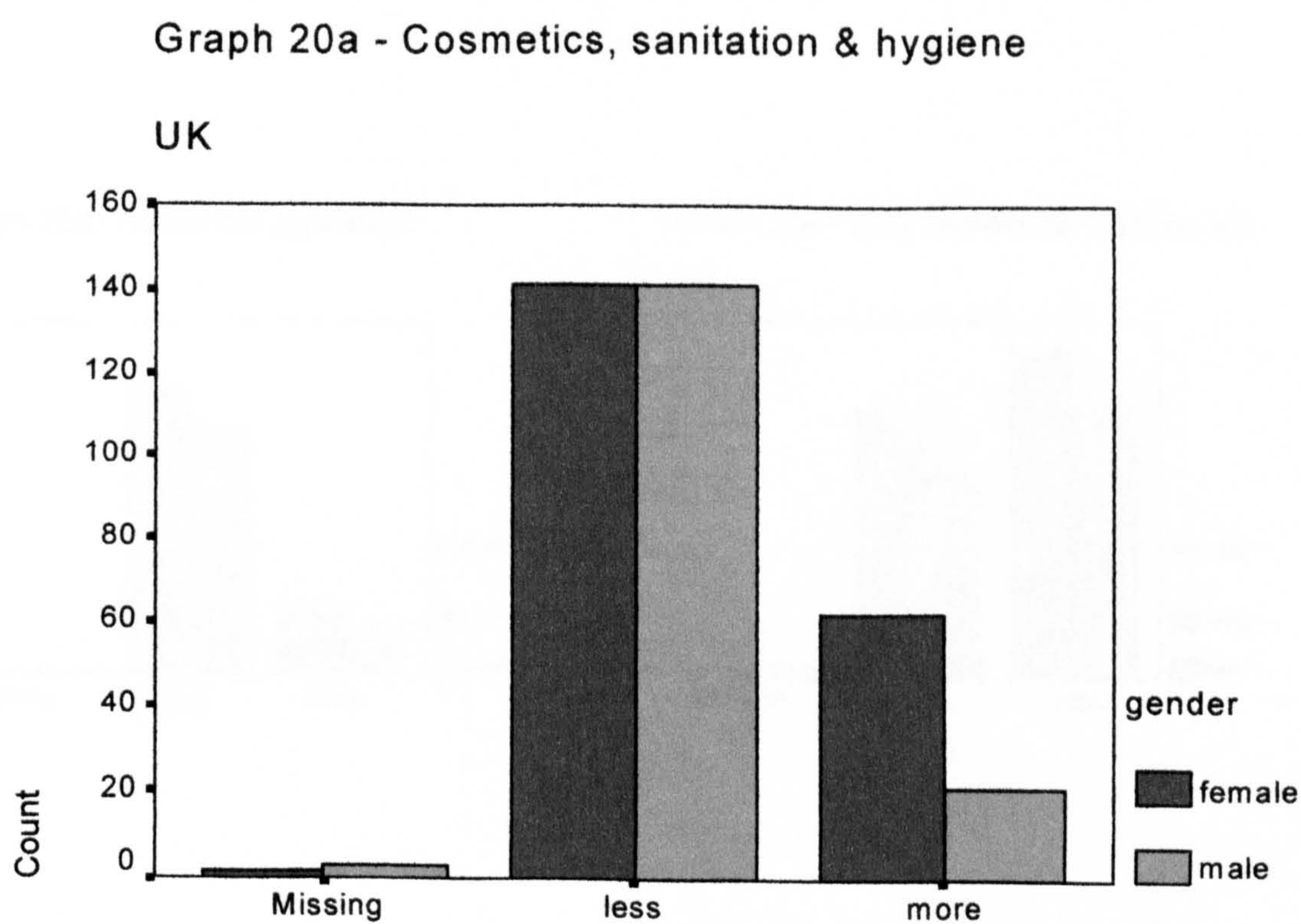
Graph 19 - Like or Dislike advertising



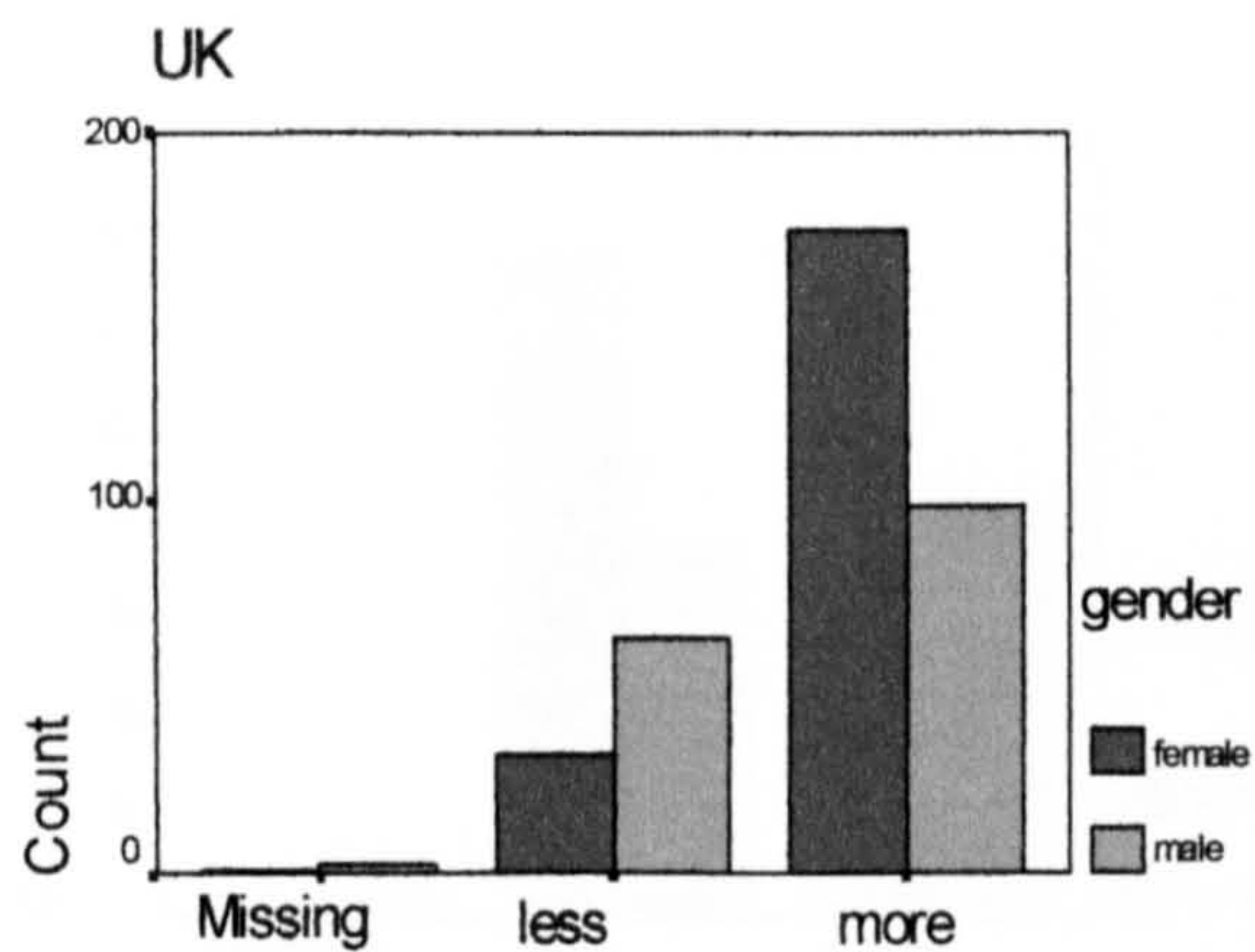
In order to explore the type of product information young adults in the UK needed, the survey also asked respondents to report their need for information about products from a list of thirteen categories of advertisements. The results revealed that UK young adults tended to be concerned about health issues. Over two-thirds of participants suggested that they would like more advertising about medicine, nutrition and health information. Although the average living standard in the UK is much higher than in China, UK respondents also demanded more information on items such as audio/visual equipment, entertainment, fashion, watches, glasses, bikes, and books, magazines and education. Moreover, nearly seventy percent of people would prefer more fashion information, such as clothing, shoes, jewellery, and so on. Since many Hi-tech resources surround consumers in high street shops in the UK, young adults thought there should be less advertising on cars, motorcycles, computers, photocopiers and other office products. Similar to Chinese responses, over two-thirds of the UK respondents felt that there was too many advertisements on cosmetics, sanitation and hygiene products, and household necessities. Young UK adults also pointed out that consumer electrical appliances should be reduced (81 percent). With regard to interior design information, young adults in the UK were not interested in more of this kind of advertising (70 percent). However, in the case of food and drink, both male and female respondents in the UK had equal opinions on the amount of advertisements.

Further examination by gender of UK respondents revealed that there were some differences between male and female responses (see Graph 20a, pp.164 and Graph20b – 20m, pp.165 - 166). Apparently, male participants had very significant opinions on reducing some advertising, such as cosmetics, sanitation and hygiene products ($X^2 = 15.849$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$), while female respondents highly responded to cutting the advertising of cars and motorcycles ($X^2 = 15.292$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$). The results showed that female young adults in the UK likely intended to absorb more new information. Over two-thirds of women asked for more books, magazines,

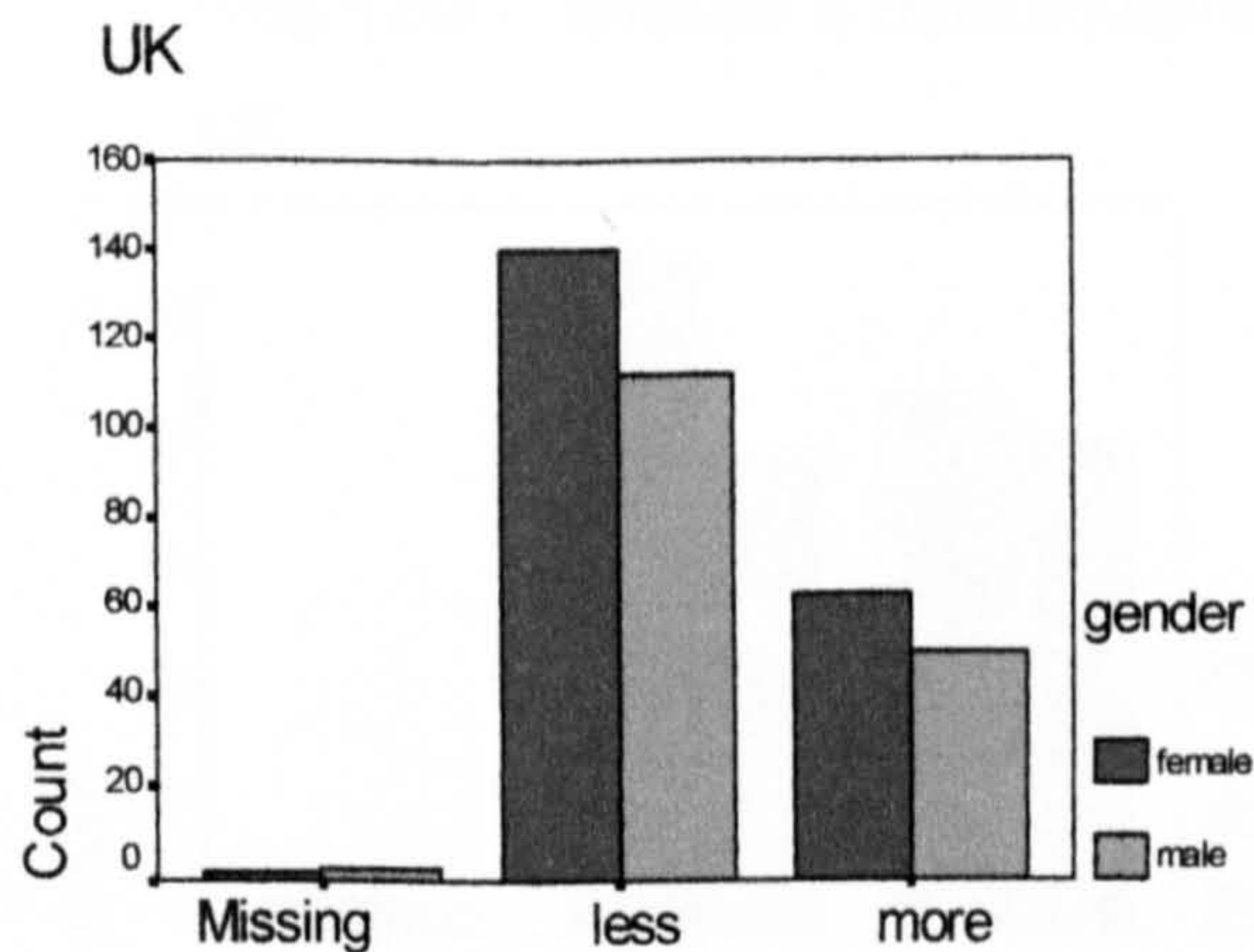
schools and education information ($X^2 = 11.021$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.001$). The amount of advertising on fashion information spread out evenly among male participants, female subjects, obviously, highly demanded more such advertising ($X^2 = 9.972$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.002$). In terms of medicine, nutrition and health information, female young adults in Britain had very significant demand on these types of advertisements ($X^2 = 26.556$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.000$), while males showed less interest.



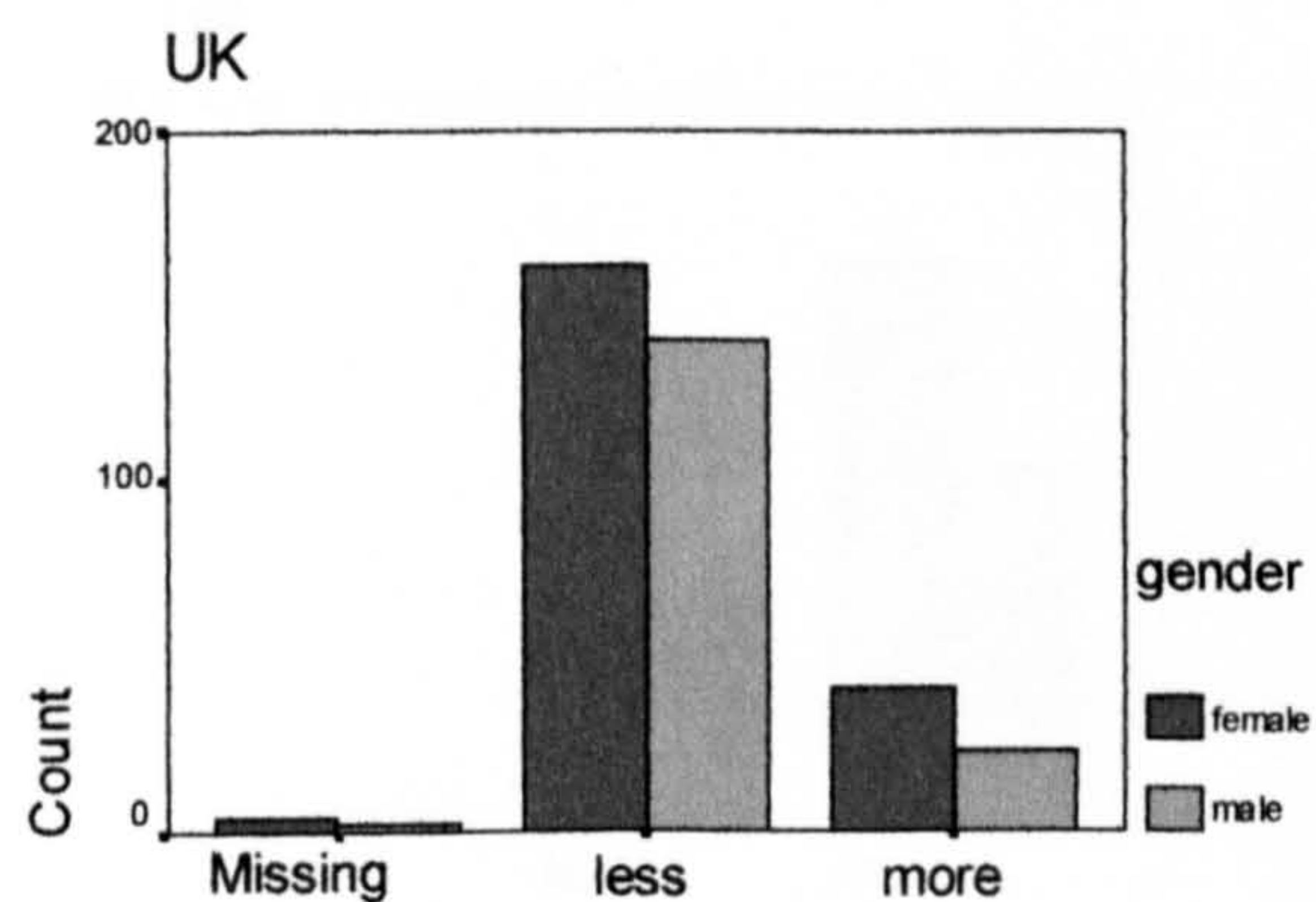
Graph 20b - Medicine



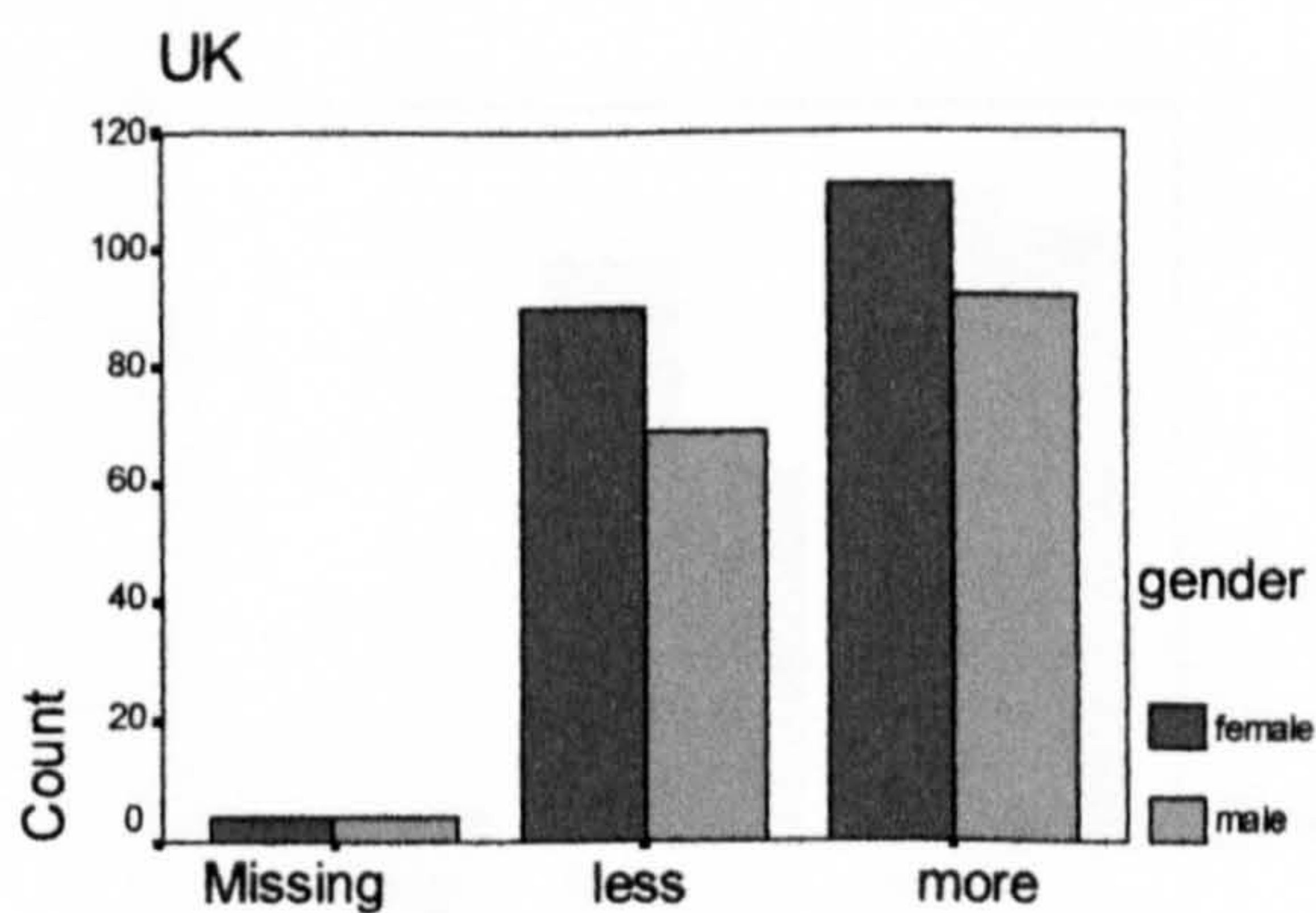
Graph 20c - Consumer electrical appliances



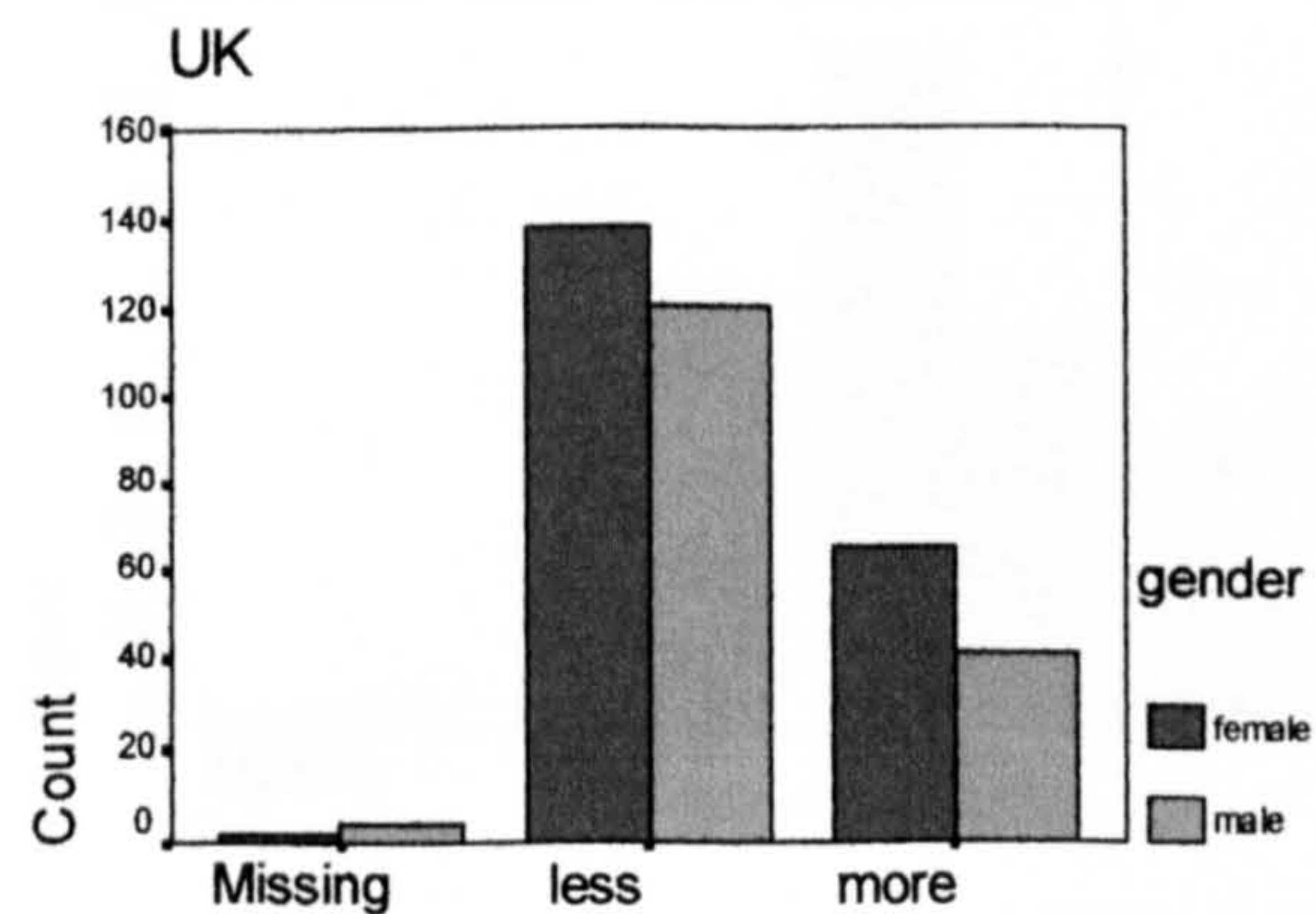
Graph 20d - Household appliances



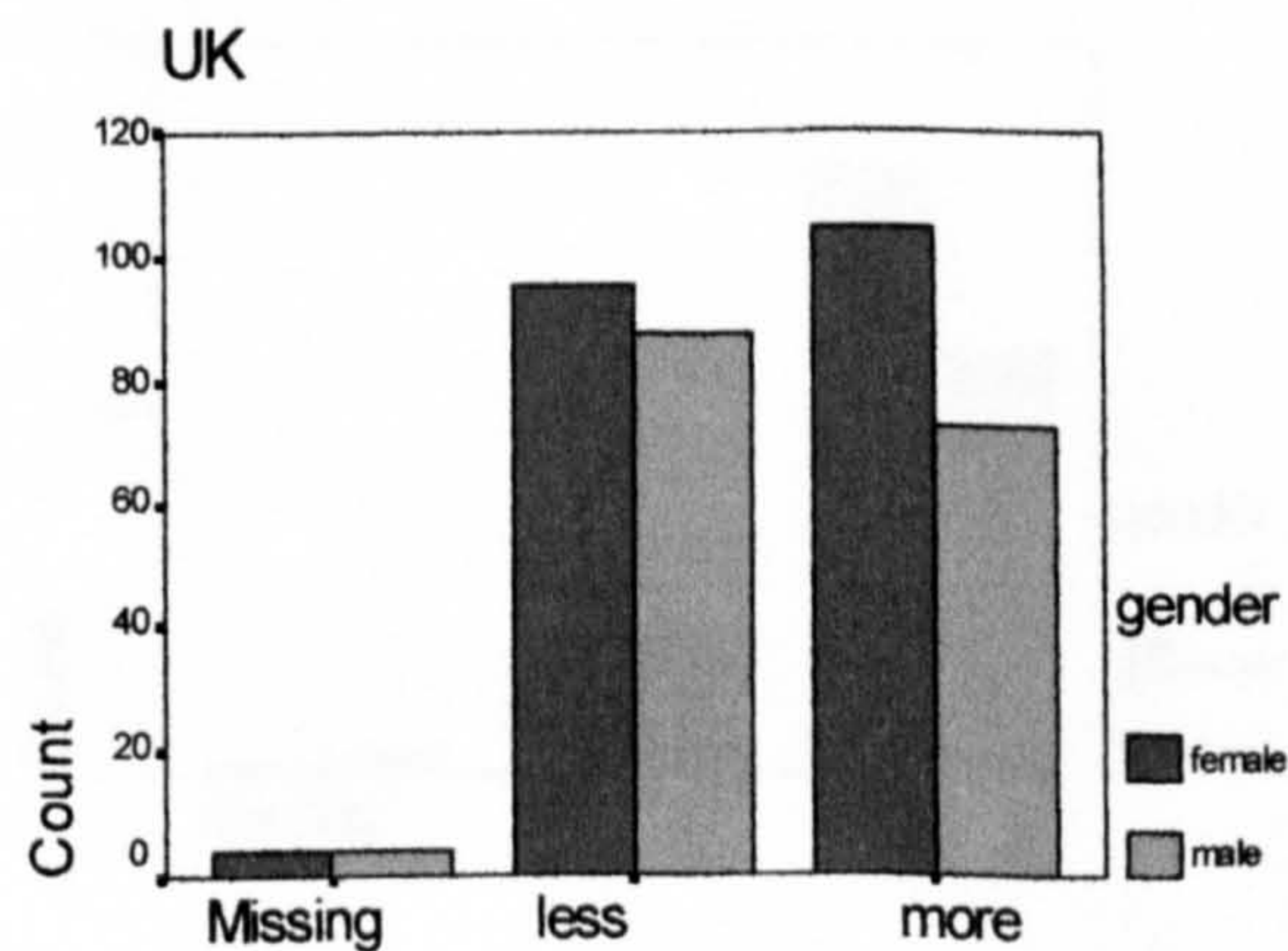
Graph 20e - Daily necessities, watches etc



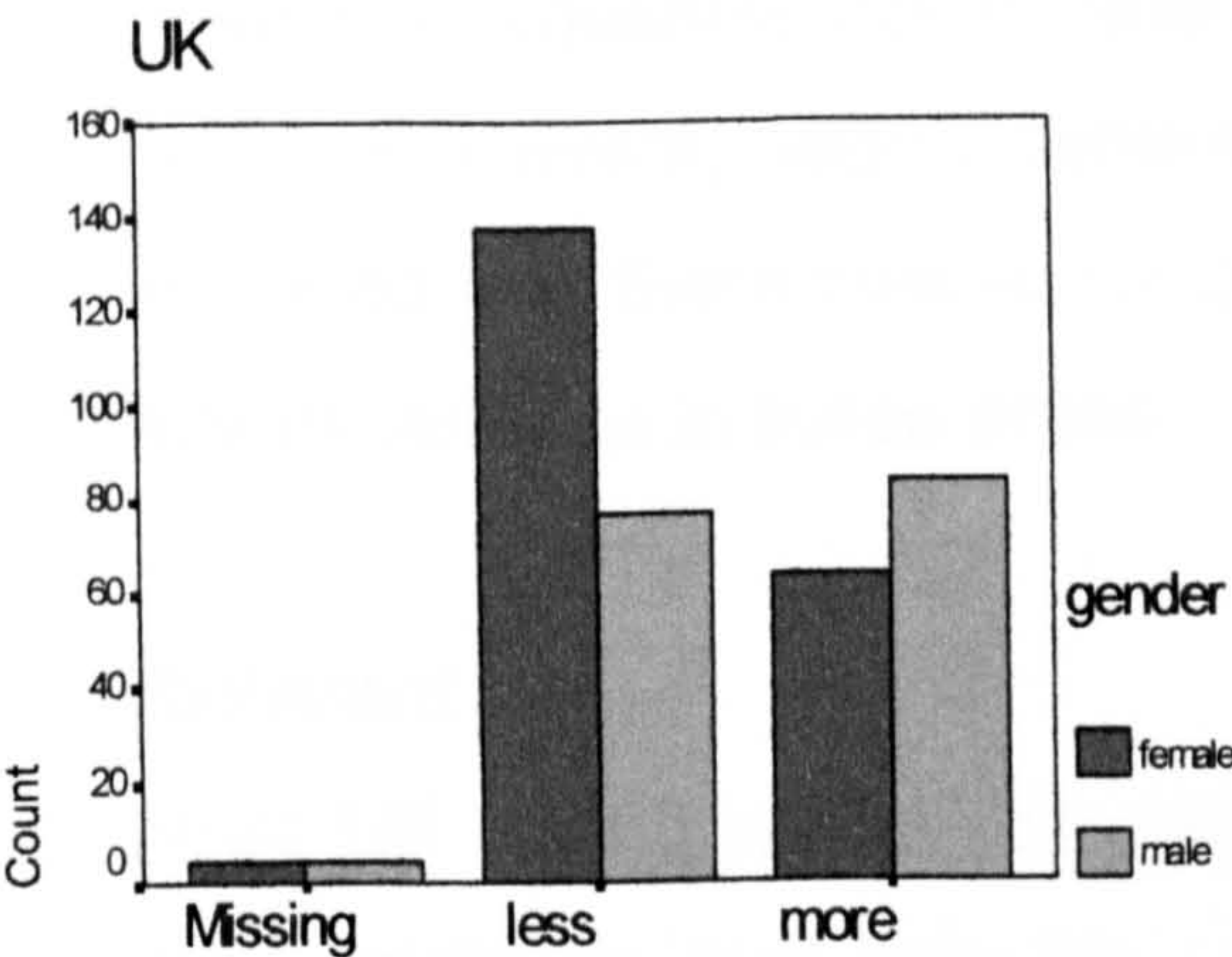
Graph 20f - Interior decoration



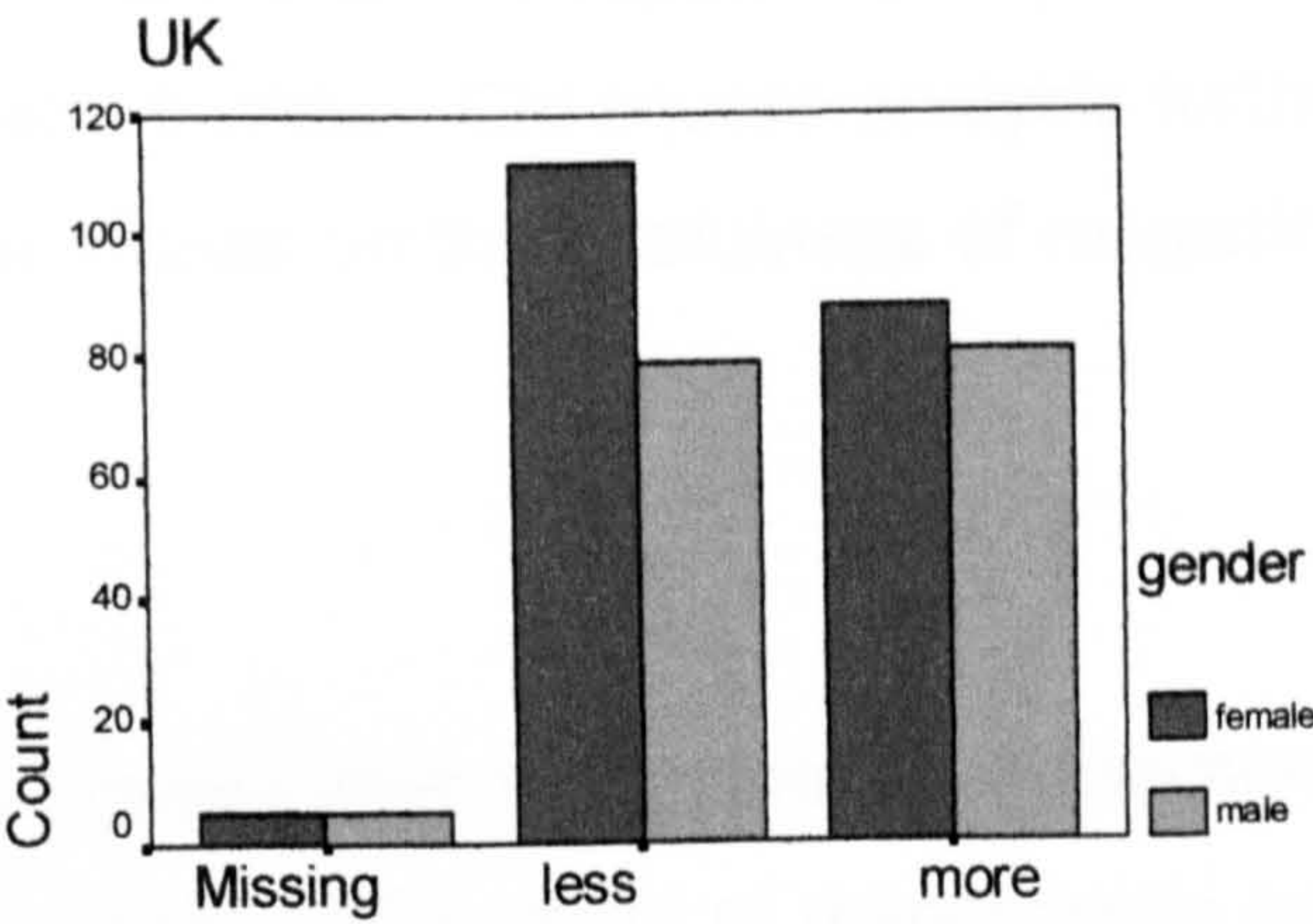
Graph 20g - Food & drink



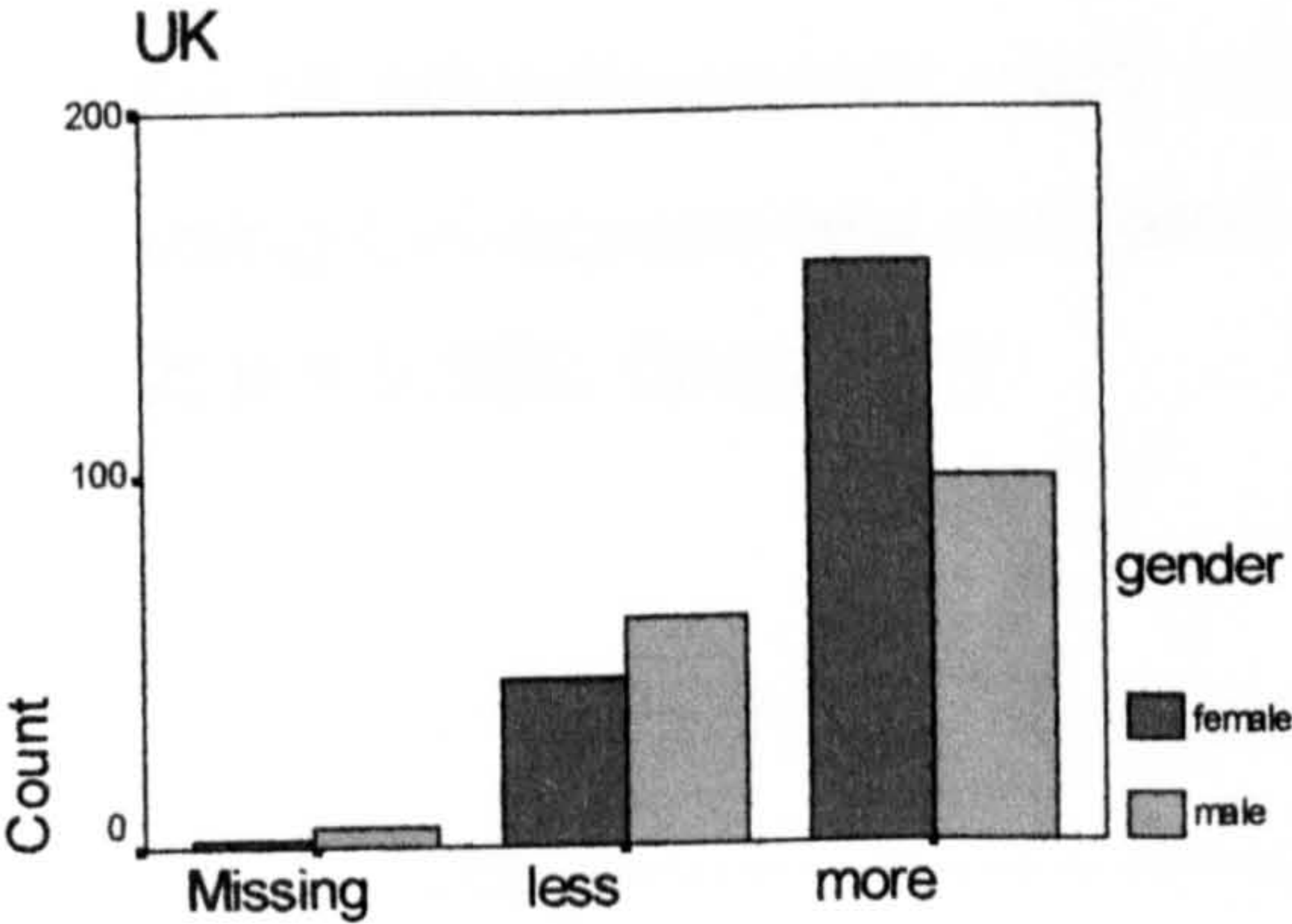
Graph 20h - Cars & motorcycles



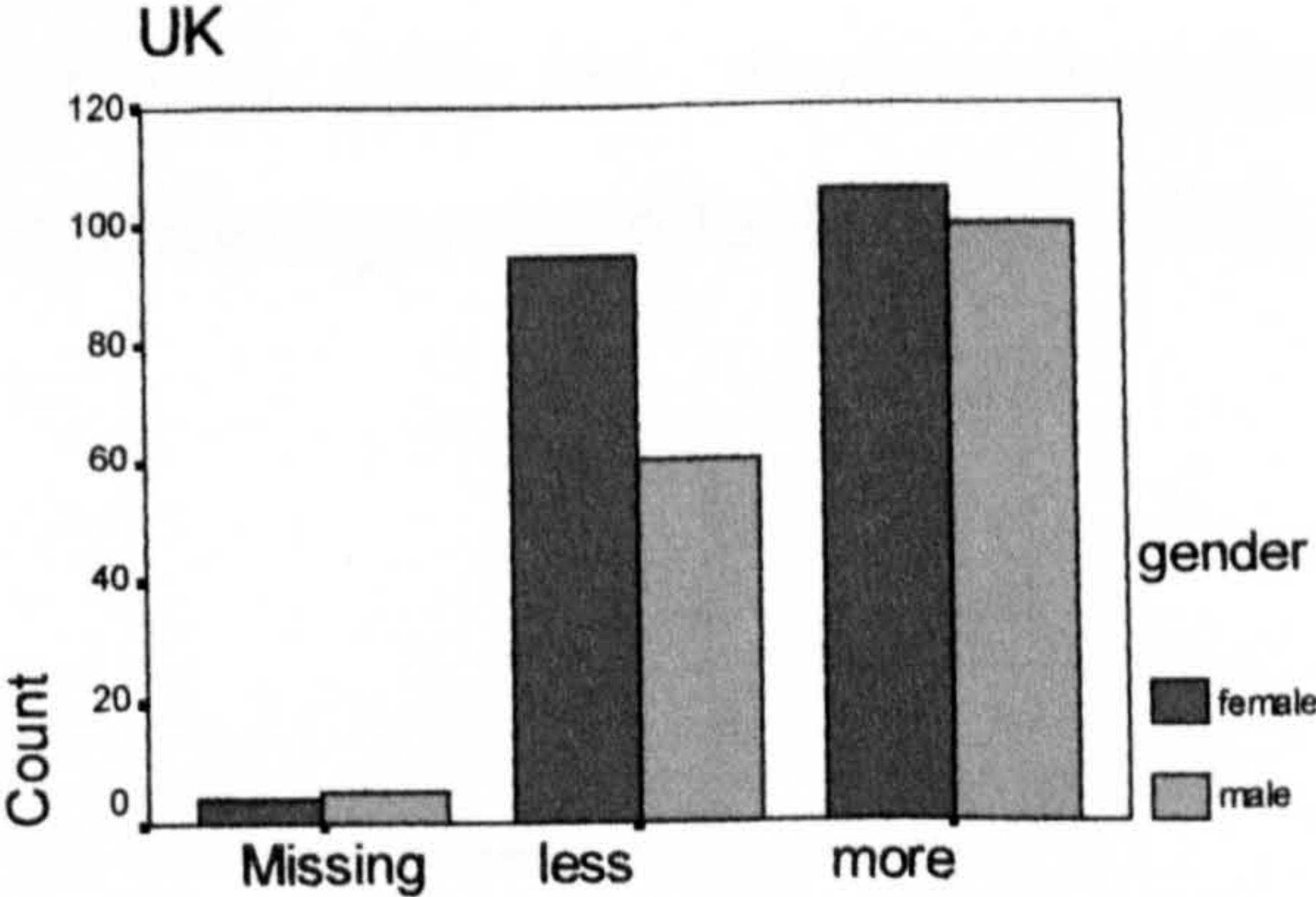
Graph 20i - Computer & office equipment



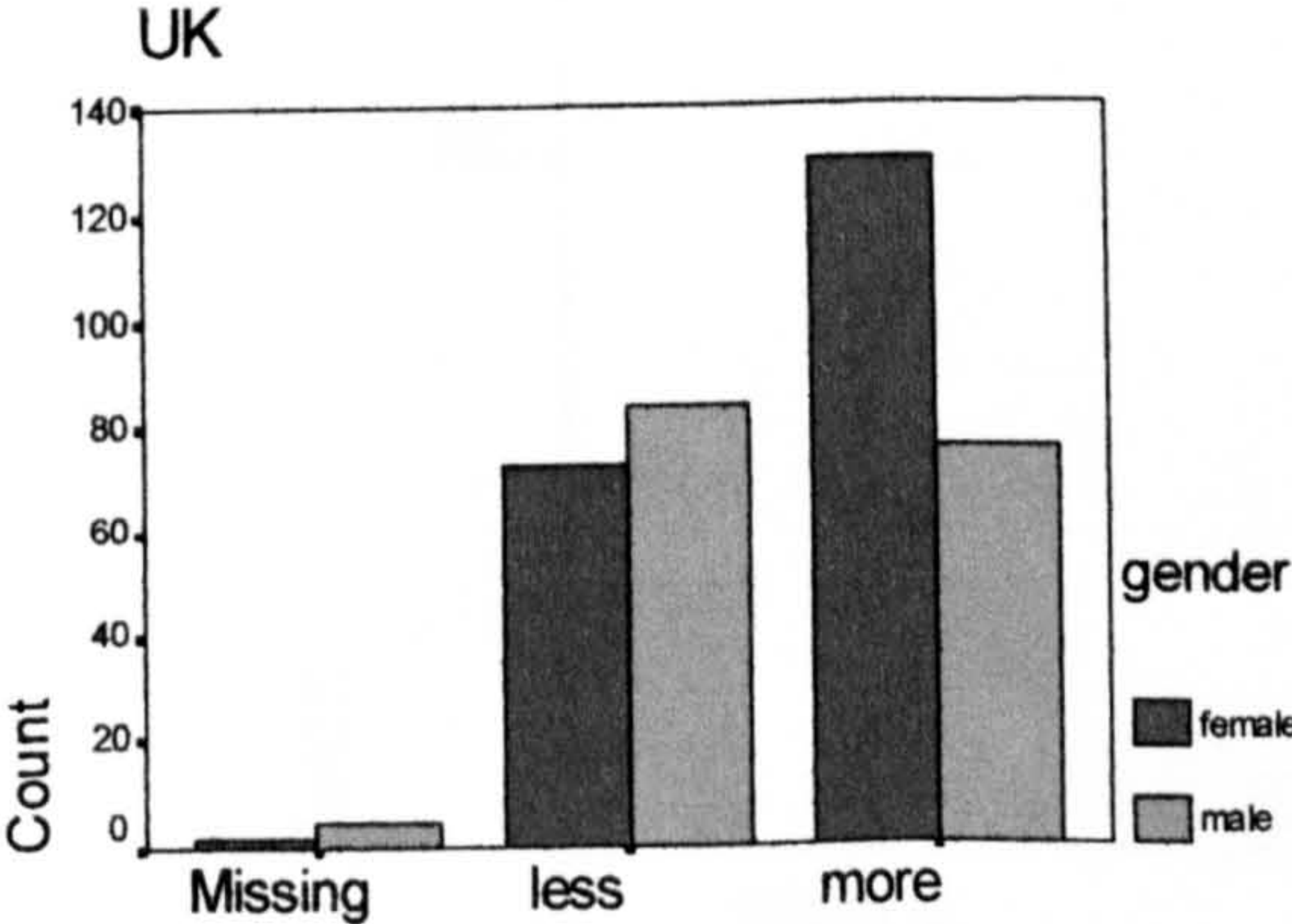
Graph 20j - Education, books & magazines



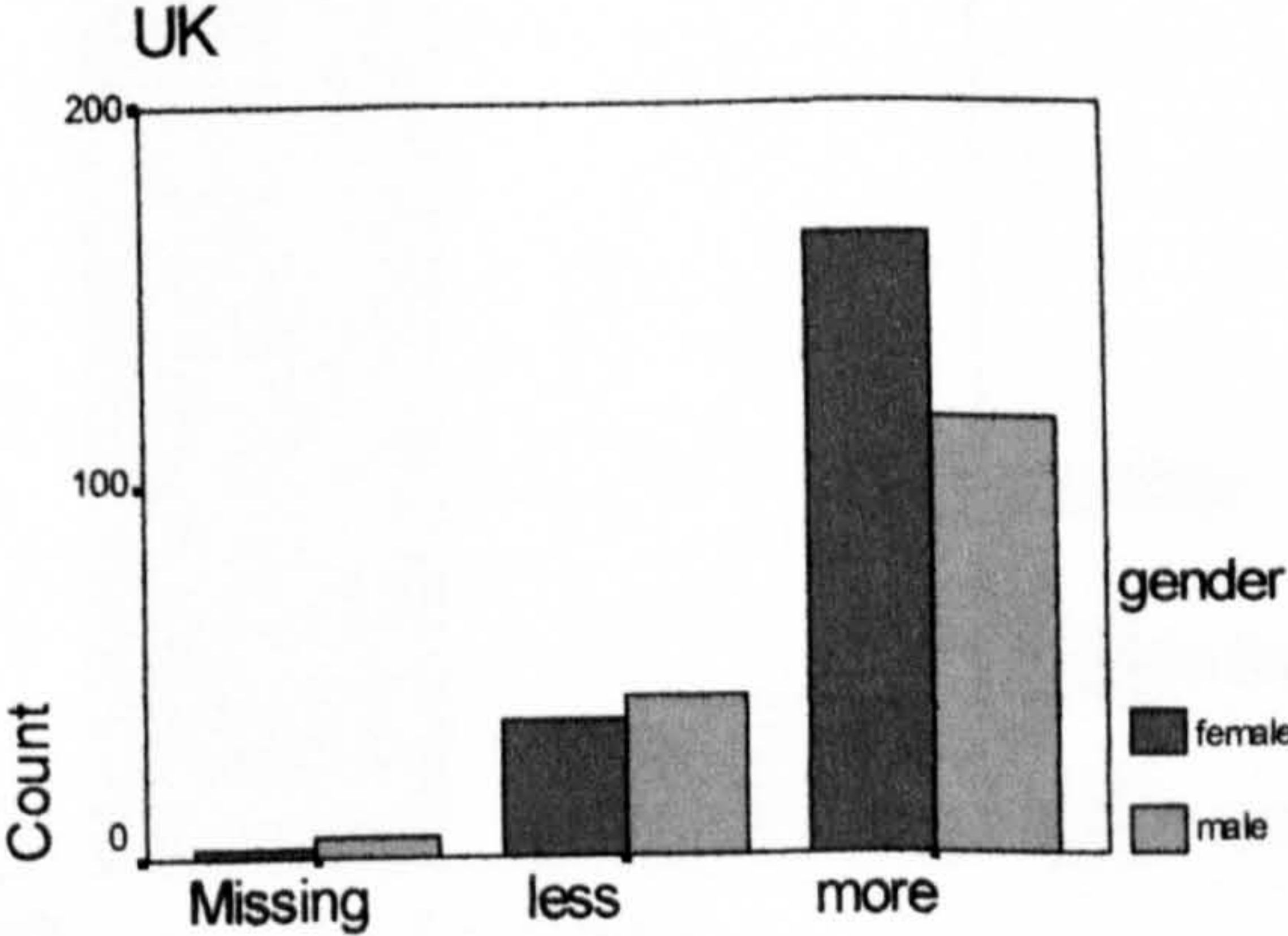
Graph 20k - Audio/visual equipment



Graph 20l - Fashion information



Graph 20m - Entertainment

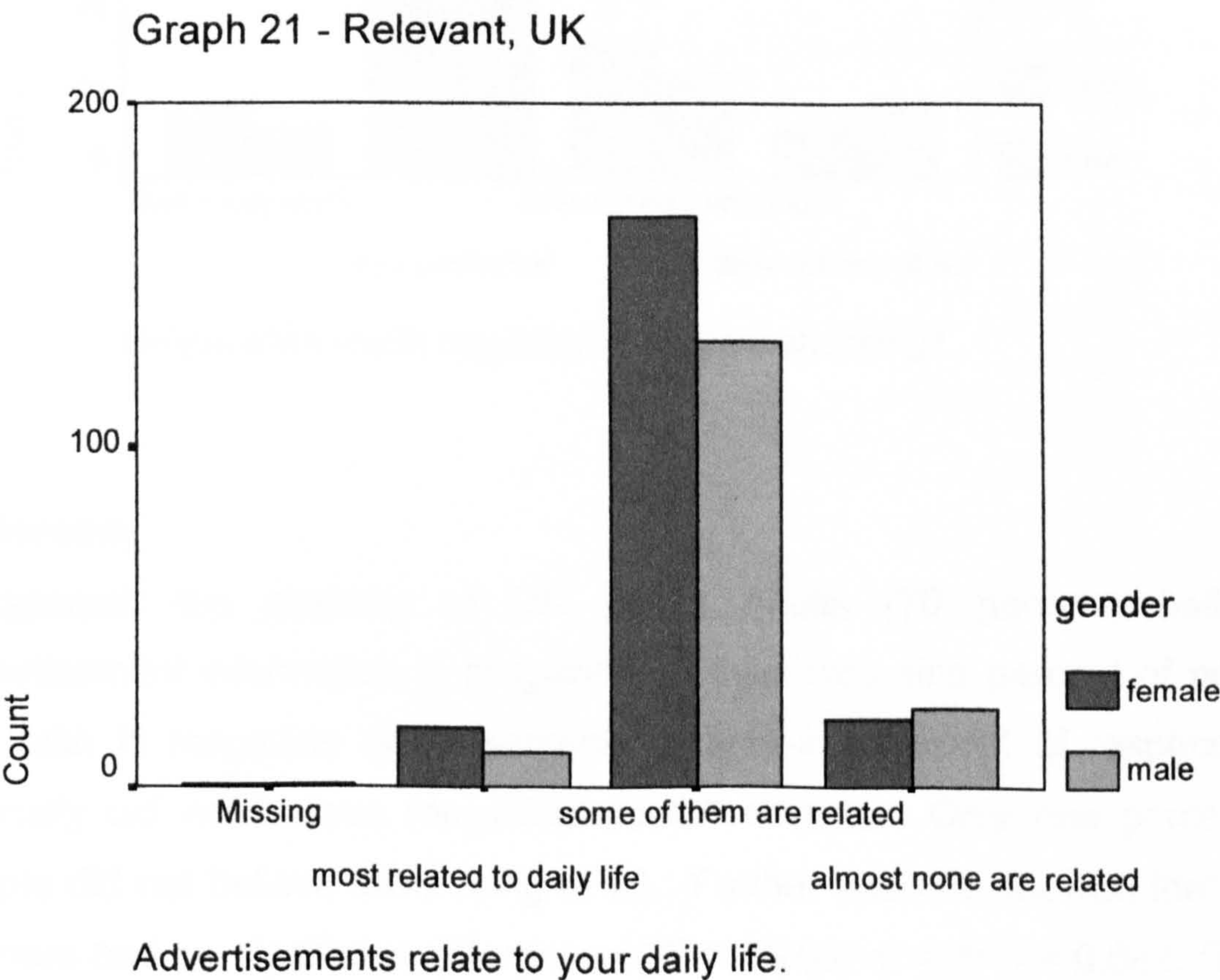


Usefulness of magazine advertising

In order to determine UK young adults’ perceptions of the usefulness of magazine advertisements, research asked them to report their opinions in terms of relevant, helpful, believable and truthful. Chi-square analysis further indicated that there was some gender effects on the usefulness of magazine advertisements in these areas.

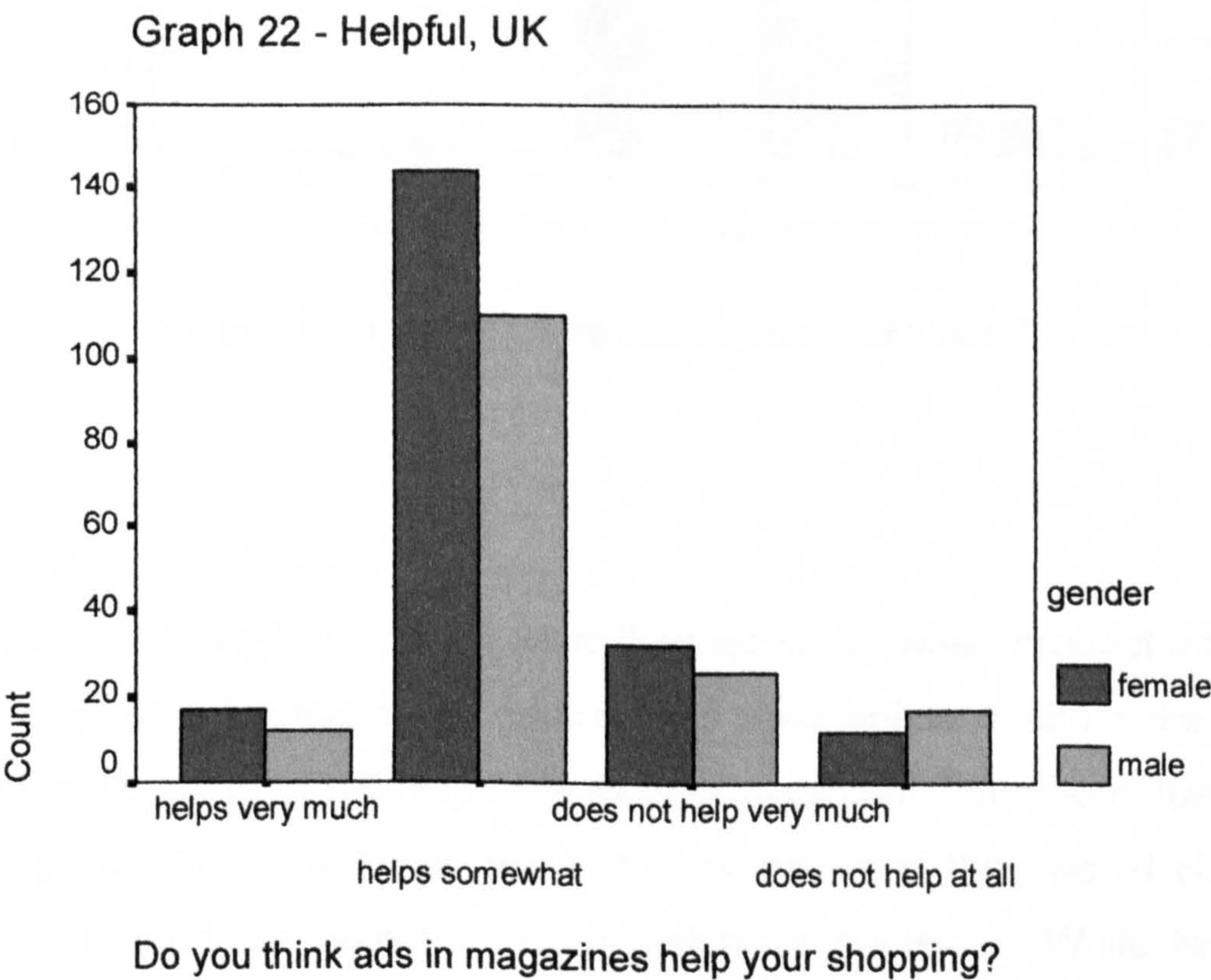
Relevant

Most UK young adults (87 percent) agreed that magazine advertisements were related to their daily life. Among them, 80 percent of respondents said that some magazine advertisements were related to their everyday life; seven percent of people agreed that most magazine advertisements were related to their everyday life. Only 11 percent of respondents felt that almost no of advertisements were related to their daily life. Further examination using Chi-square test indicated no significant gender effects ($X^2 = 2.049$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.359$; Graph 21).



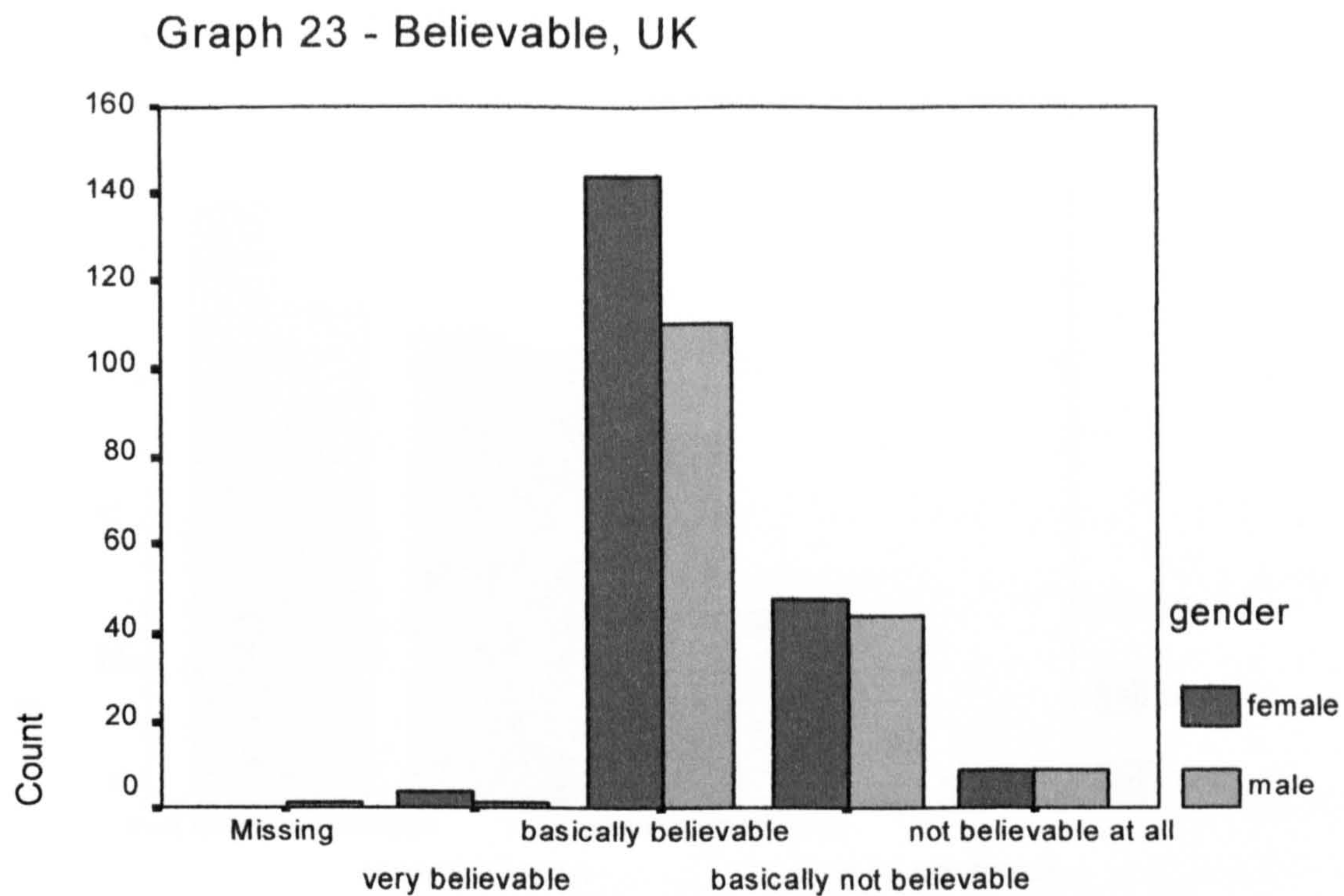
Helpful

Over two-thirds of young adults in the UK thought that advertisements in magazines were helpful for their shopping. Sixty-nine percent of respondents agreed that magazine advertisements were useful somewhat for their purchasing. However, only twenty-three percent of people disagreed that magazine advertisements were helpful for their shopping at all. The statistics of Chi-square test did not show any significant differences among genders ($X^2 = 2.602$; $df = 3$; $p = 0.457$; Graph 22).



Believable

In general, the majority of UK young adults (70 percent) believed advertisement information in magazine. While sixty-nine percent of people had faith in magazine advertisements, twenty-five percent of respondents basically did not believe magazine advertisements. Only one percent of people did not believe advertising at all. Further analysis showed that both genders had no significant differences ($X^2 = 0.766$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.682$; Graph 23, pp.169).

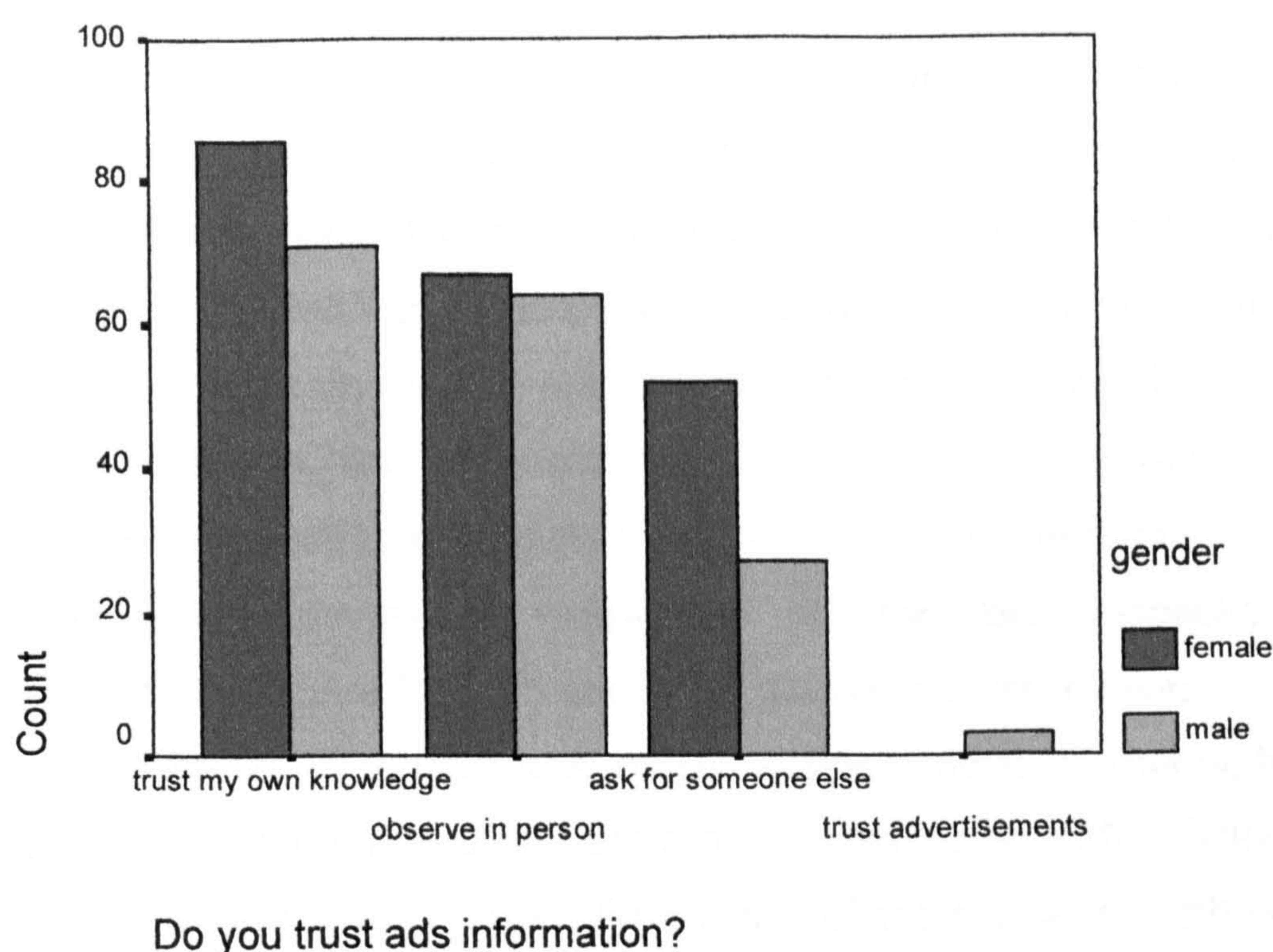


Do you think ads in magazines are believable?

Truthful

Participants have been asked what they would do when product information in magazine advertisements contradicted their opinions about the product. Forty-two percent of UK respondents were very confident about trusting their own knowledge. Thirty-five percent of people said they would observe in person around the markets before making a decision. While twenty-one percent of subjects said they would ask for other peoples' opinions before deciding to buy the product. Less than one percent of respondents trusted advertising. Chi-square test showed that there were no significant differences between genders ($X^2 = 4.436$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.109$; Graph 24, pp.170)

Graph 24 - Truthful, UK



6.3.3 Section Summary

The results from the exploratory analyses of the general information of advertising in the UK and China have provided different views, namely, spending time on reading magazines, ranking advertising media exposure, obtaining product information sources, type of commercial/advertising, perceptions of magazine advertisements exposure, amount of advertising, and usefulness of magazine advertising. The comparative analyses using Pearson's Chi-square tests also revealed significant differences in some subjects of advertising exposure perceived by the UK and Chinese young adults.

Spending time on reading magazines

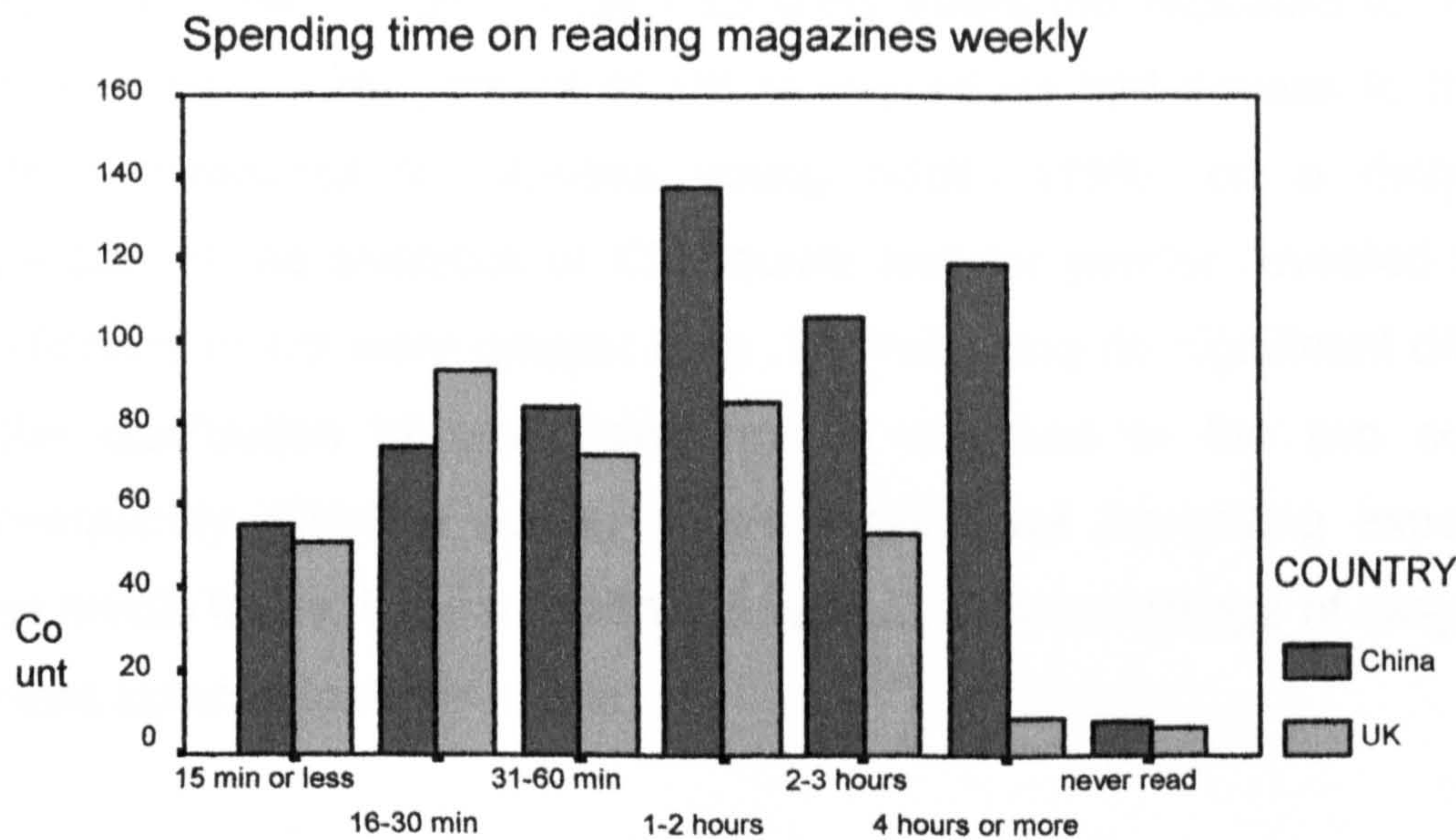
The test statistics for UK and China revealed significance levels ($p = 0.000$), indicating highly significant differences in the distribution of the time spent on

reading magazines between the two countries. Graph 25 (pp.172) displayed that over 60% of Chinese young adults read magazines at least “more than 1-2 hours” weekly, compared to forty percent of UK young adults, indicating Chinese young adults tended to spend more reading time on magazines than UK respondents. With a variety of magazines available in the UK, however, the analyses showed that the majority of the UK young adults (94%) spent at least once a week on reading magazines compared with eighty-five percent of young adults in China (see Graph 26, pp.173). The further Chi-square test for Chinese respondents indicated that young male adults in China spent much more time on reading magazines than females. Inspection of the statistics of Chi-square for both countries’ gender effects revealed that young females in the UK ($p = .003$) read more magazine advertisements, however, young male in China ($p = .000$) were more concentrated on the distribution of 4-5 times and 2-3 time a week. As a result of the statistics, both countries’ young adults most likely spent considerable time on absorbing new product information from various magazines. There is no evidence to prove that young male adults in China prefer reading, or have more disposable income to spend on it than females. It does, however, likely imply that young male and female adults in China have different lifestyles.

Ranking advertising media exposure

The different living styles during the academic term in both countries while the questionnaires were conducted affected respondents’ exposure to the different media. Further Chi-square test to confirm and revealed significant values (all $p = .000$), indicating a greatly significant difference in the ranking of advertising media exposure between the UK and China. It was understood, from informal interviews with respondents during the questionnaire survey, that most Chinese students lived in school accommodation during the term time. In contrast, UK students had

Graph 25

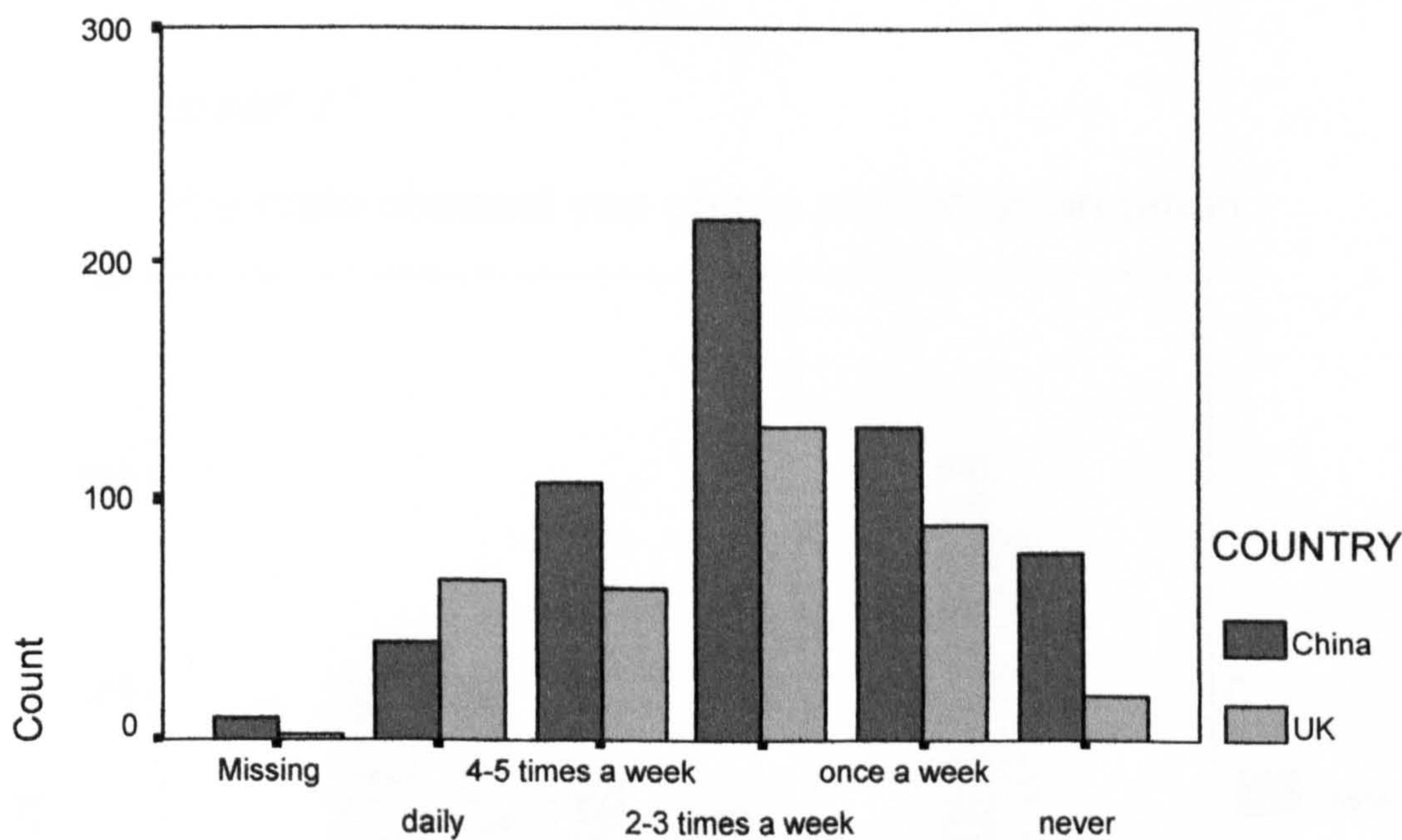


several choices from living at home, staying in school accommodation, or renting a house. Considering disposable income, transportation and geography in China, it was inconvenient for some students to travel home during the weekend as students in the UK do. In general, both countries' young adults spent considerable time exposing to the TV medium on a daily basis, more so than other media. As a result of sharing a TV in the halls of accommodation in China, UK respondents accounted eighty-one percent of high exposure time on for TV compared with thirty-five percent of Chinese participants. The frequency analyses indicated that the both countries' young adults had similar exposure to newspapers and magazines. However, the Chi-square test revealed that young adults in the UK were more open to newspapers and magazines media than Chinese young adults ($p = .000$), especially UK young adults (18%) were more exposed to magazine advertisements than Chinese (7%) on a daily basis. The main reason for those reading magazines "once a week" or "never" in both countries was lack of time (UK 29%, China 36%). The Chi-square analyses showed that Chinese young adults had less reading magazine because of "low quality of the magazine advertisement" and "magazine unavailable". Although no direct evidence shows that money is the cause, it seems likely that the availability of various newspapers and magazines and the quality of

advertising in each country have something to do with this. The living conditions in each country may also likely affect the exposure to the radio medium. Near forty percent of UK young adults had access to the radio medium compared to Chinese young adults (19%) on a daily basis. Inspection of the statistics of Chi-square test for gender revealed that the significance levels were greater than .10, indicating no significant difference in the distribution of advertising media exposure in the two countries. Consequently, Chinese young adults might have increasing exposure to mass media today, UK participants, however, took advantage of easy access to mass communications media.

Graph 26

Obtaining product information from magazine ads



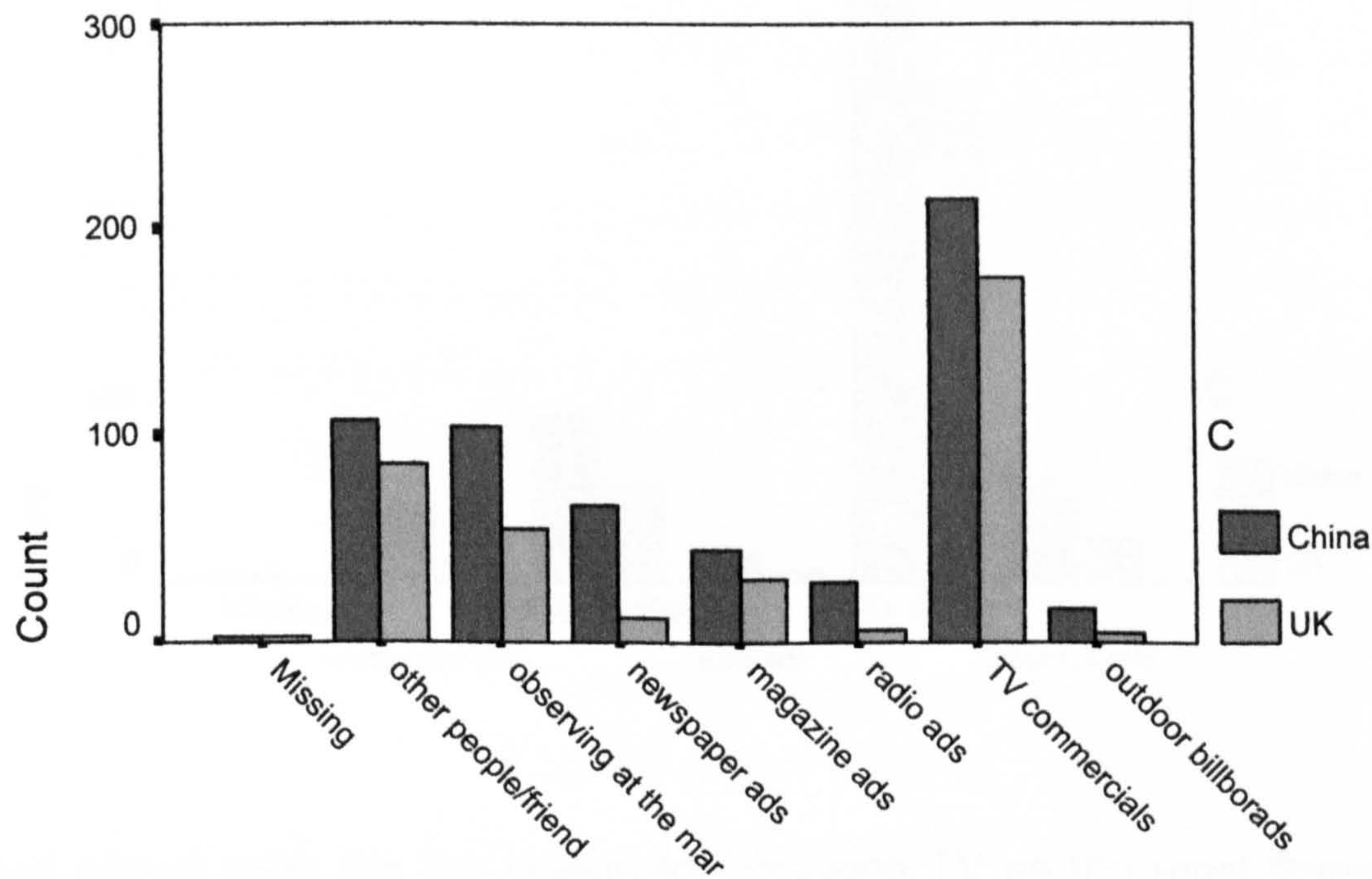
Obtaining product information sources

As expected, TV was ranked as the highest favourable channel to obtain the product information in both countries (Graph 27, pp.174). Although UK young adults tended to have higher percentage of selecting the “other people/friends” as second channel to obtain product information, Chinese respondents relied on both similar ranking percentages form “other

people/friends” and “observing at the market” to gain the product information after TV channel selection. It implies that “word of mouth” still plays an important role in marketing comminations in both countries’ youth markets. UK young adults had no gender effects on the subject of obtaining product information sources, while Chinese females preferred TV and males favoured newspapers to obtain the product information. The Chi-square test of genders between the two countries revealed that Chinese males seemed to use more “other people/friend and “newspaper” to get information than the UK ($p = .000$), while these were no significant differences between females from both countries. Overall, magazine advertisements were not ranked as the most favourable channel to obtain information, however, the importance of its role as a mass medium should not be ignored.

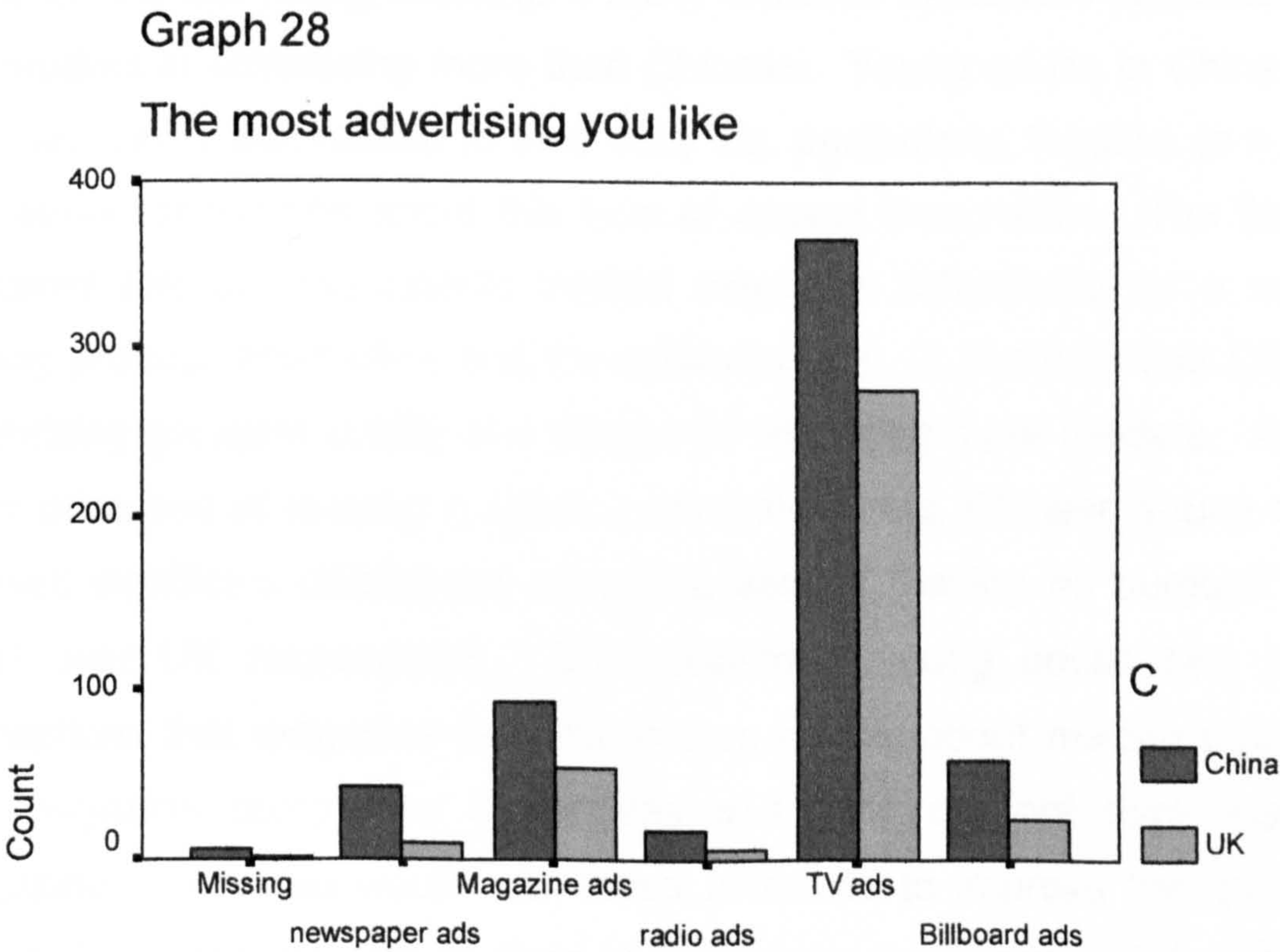
Graph 27

The main channel you obtain product information



Type of commercial/advertising

Obviously, TV commercials were chosen as the most favourable type of advertising in the two countries (see Graph 28). The same results from the two sample groups ranked magazines as the second popular type of advertising. With such a huge geographic area in China, print advertisements from magazines and newspapers play an important role in marketing promotion to reach demographic groups. Inspection of the statistics of Chi-square analyses indicated that UK young adults preferred TV commercial ($p = .001$), while Chinese young adults favoured newspaper advertisements more than UK. The statistics also revealed that the significant value ($p = .03$) between the genders from the two countries, indicating Chinese males liked newspaper advertisement than UK males.



Visual stimuli were the top reason for choosing TV as the most favourable type of advertising among all respondents. However, UK young adults were particularly attracted by the impressions of sex and humour appeals advertising, while these two kinds of used in were either prohibited by the Chinese authorities (sex appeals) or less well developed (humour appeals) in

China.

Perceptions of magazine advertisements exposure

The two countries' young adults have positive attitudes towards magazine advertisements as indicated by frequency testing. Analysis revealed that the two sample groups chose to read only those advertisements that interest them and quickly viewed the picture/title of advertisements. Only few people skipped all the advertisements when they read magazines. Further Chi-square analyses showed that there were no significant differences between the two countries and the genders. All respondents appeared to pay a lot of attention to the products featured in advertising. Both countries' young adults were more attracted by advertising employing gorgeous actors or models, however, the UK young adults ($p = .000$) favoured the artistic appearance of the product in advertising more than Chinese. Young adults in China liked advertisements that related to their daily life, particularly, females ($p = .000$) had strong of feelings about this type of appeal than males. The findings indicated that all respondents treated magazine advertising as a way of getting product information and for entertainment. It confirms that Chinese advertising provides quality and design for attracting more readers. Among other purposes of reading magazine advertisements, Chinese young adults showed significant differences on the subject of "having no purpose" ($p = .001$) over UK respondents. Both countries' young adults had similar perceptions that magazine advertising was mainly about making profits for the magazine companies themselves and they did not think that the magazine companies would use these revenues to improve the quality of advertising. However, the findings of Chi-square tests revealed the Chinese felt that magazine advertising helped to promote the product ($p = .001$). As a result, it appeared that Chinese young adults supported magazine advertising as a tool for obtaining product information.

Amount of advertising

Overall, most subjects agreed that there was too much advertising in magazines, especially in UK magazines. While the majority of subjects in the UK liked magazine advertising ($p = .000$), Chinese respondents showed no particular like or dislike of magazine advertising. Further Chi-square test revealed that UK females liked advertising a lot ($p = .000$), in contrast, Chinese males ($p = .001$) had similar feelings about advertising as UK females.

The desires for different types of product information showed in advertisements provides the evidences to improve living standards and lifestyles in China, such as demand for cars, fashion, computers, books, education, home interior and entertainment information. Data analyses indicated that some consumer electrical appliances, such as fridges, microwaves etc., were no longer the most popular items. Nevertheless, UK young adults also required more information on audio/visual equipment, entertainment, fashion, in particular they asked for more medicine and health information. As housing plans in China's major cities have increased recently, Chinese young adults appeared to demand more interior design information, while UK young adults showed no interest in it. These findings also likely suggested the kinds of businesses which might be popular in China. Marketers and advertisers could prepare their business plans focused on the above products. Table 6.1 displays a list of requirements for more product information based on the results of Chi-square tests on data from the two countries.

Table 6.1 Summary of Advertisement of Product Information

Advertisement of product information	China	UK
Cosmetics, sanitation and hygiene products	M	
Advertisements for medicine, nutrition and health		M
Advertisements for consumer electrical appliances, eg. fridge, microwave etc	0	0
Advertisements for household appliances, eg. detergent, shampoo, soap etc	M	
Advertisements for daily necessities like watches, glasses, bikes etc	0	0
Advertisements for carpets, furniture and other interior decoration	M	
Advertisements for food and drink	M	
Advertisements for cars and motorcycles	M	
Advertisements for computers, photocopiers and other office products	M	
Advertisements for books, magazines, schools and education etc	M	
Advertisements for audio/visual equipment, eg. Hi-fi, Walkman, TV, VCR etc	M	
Advertisements for fashion information, eg. clothing, shoes, jewellery etc	0	0
Advertisements for entertainment like music, movie, travel, cameras etc	0	0

M represents that the country demands more product information, $p < .001$.

0 represents that both countries have no significant differences, $p > .05$.

Usefulness of magazine advertising

Overall, respondents revealed optimistic attitudes towards the usefulness of magazine advertising. Most of both countries' young adults felt that magazine advertisements were related to their daily life, in particular female respondents in China were more agreeable with it. Most participants from the two countries agreed that magazine advertising as helpful for shopping. Especially, young male adults in China thought that magazine advertising was more useful for decision-making on their shopping. Additionally, the majority of respondents in China and the UK believed the product information in magazine advertising. The results also indicated that females in China tended to be basically more disbelieving of magazine advertising. UK young adults were very confident about trusting their own knowledge when advertisements contradicted their opinions about the product. However, young male adults in China appeared more trusting of their own knowledge, while females observed in person around markets before making decisions. Although young adults in China had faith in their own knowledge, however, Chinese people like to gather as much information as possible before revealing their thoughts to avoid losing face (Arias, 1998; Bradley, 1991; Buttery and Leung, 1998; Cateora *et al.*, 2000; Jeannet and Hennessey,

2001).

In section 6.2, the comparisons of major similarities and differences between the two countries' general advertising information have been examined and summarised. The following sections present the findings from the analyses of three key concepts (cultural values, advertising appeals, and attitudes towards advertising in general) and testing the hypotheses in detail.

6.3 Cultural Values

As described at the previous chapters, the effect of culture values on advertising content was investigated using content analysis of magazine advertisements from China and the UK. In order to understand the key issue of cultural values in each country, it is necessary first to examine the significance of dominant cultural values manifest in Chinese and UK magazine advertisements. Furthermore, the relative importance of any similarities and/or differences in cultural values reflected in the two countries' magazine advertisements needs to be investigated to provide insights for advertisers and marketers about the promotional strategies they may adopt in international advertising environments. The examination of advertising content analysis in the comparisons of cultural values between Chinese and UK magazine advertisements was based on the following hypotheses (H1 and H2):

- H 1 *Chinese magazine advertisements tend to use more emotional cultural values than UK magazine advertisements.*
- H 2 *Chinese magazine advertisements tend to use more traditional cultural values than UK magazine advertisements.*

The assessments of reliability and validity for cultural values have been discussed and verified in Sections 5.4 and 5.5 in Chapter 5. In this section, the tests of cultural values were carried out with advertising content analyses. This was based on the concepts of thirty-three cultural values to analyse the contents of Chinese and UK magazine advertisements. The results of data analyses are presented in the following sub-sections.

6.3.1 Sample Profile

Data analyses using frequency of appearance of the dominant cultural values and product categories were recorded and percentages were compiled. Further analyses by using Pearson’s Chi-square detected whether there were any significant associations between the two countries.

The sample consisted of 748 advertisements in total – 154 from China and 594 from the UK. The distribution of advertisements among different product categories is presented in Table 6.2 with the assessed X²-values reported in the last column.

Table 6.2 Frequencies of Product Categories Coded by Country

Product Category	Country				X ² -values
	China (n= 154)		UK (n= 594)		
	Count	% ^a	Count	% ^a	
Cosmetics & Fashion	60	39	254	42.8	.725
Food & Drink	0	0	71	12.0	20.338***
Household Appliances	19	12.3	47	7.9	2.977
Medicine	24	15.6	33	5.6	17.473***
Personal Care	11	7.1	23	3.9	3.015
Services	6	3.9	44	7.4	2.417
Cars & Motorbikes	0	0	31	5.2	8.385**
Home Interior & Improvement	2	1.3	16	2.7	1.013
Education	9	5.8	2	0.3	25.601***
Audio/Visual Products	17	11	12	2.0	26.692***
Consumer Electrical Products	4	2.6	36	6.1	2.898
Entertainment	0	0	20	3.4	5.328*
Miscellaneous	2	1.3	5	0.8	.275

^a Percentages may not total 100 percent because of rounding.
* *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01; *** *p* < .001

Inspection of the results in Table 6.2 indicated that the majority of the sample comprised cosmetics and fashion advertisements (39 percent from China and 43 percent from the UK) in both countries’ selected magazine advertising. In China, medicine advertisements (16 percent) counted as the

second largest group among all advertisements, followed by household appliances (12 percent), audio/visual products (11 percent), and personal care (7 percent) advertisements, respectively. In the UK, however, food and drink advertisement weighed 12 percent as the second rank in all advertisements, followed by household appliances (8 percent), services (7 percent), and consumer electrical products (6 percent) advertisements. Within thirteen product categories, especially, advertisements for food and drink, cars, and entertainment were not included in the selected Chinese magazines. However, of the 10 product categories with non-zero frequencies, three categories had significant *P*-values. All of these three significant products namely “medicine”, “education”, and “audio/visual products” (all $p < .000$) had higher proportions in China than in the UK product categories. In particular, education advertisements in Chinese magazines were most noticeable for their more frequent presence when compared with the UK magazines. It may be assumed that Chinese demanded for more education, information, and knowledge, resulting from the earlier disturbance caused by the Cultural Revolution. The needs of the different product advertisements have been reconfirmed according to the previous findings (see Section 6.2). Such as UK young adults needed more medicine advertisements; Chinese young adults wanted more advertisements in the areas of home interior/improvement and audio/visual and cars/motorbikes. The relative important relationships between cultural values and product categories will be further examined in the later sub-sections.

6.3.2 Comparative Analyses of Dominant Cultural Values in Chinese and UK Magazine Advertising

The results of the total frequencies and percentages for each of 33 cultural values found in China and UK magazine advertisements are presented in

Table 6.3 with the significant dominant values are bolded, as well as the X²-values reported in the last column.

Table 6.3 Frequencies of Cultural Values Manifest in Chinese and UK Magazine Advertisements

Cultural Values	China (N = 154)		UK (n = 594)		X ² values ³ (df = 1)
	Frequencies	% ¹	Frequencies	% ¹	
Adventure	0	0	35	5.9	9.520**
Beauty	44	28.6	59	9.9	35.780***
Collectivism	5	3.2	11	1.9	1.137
Competition	9	5.8	39	6.6	.106
Convenience	5	3.2	65	10.9	8.539**
Economy	22	14.3	37	6.2	10.926**
Effectiveness	21	13.6	75	12.6	.112
Enjoyment	1	.6	95	16.0	25.737***
Family	3	1.9	23	3.9	1.349
Health	16	10.4	40	6.7	2.360
Individualism	1	.6	64	10.8	15.800***
Leisure	20	13.0	59	9.9	1.208
Knowledge	47	30.5	65	10.9	36.814***
Magic	4	2.6	23	3.9	.571
Modernity	15	9.7	46	7.7	.651
Naturalness	5	3.2	48	8.1	4.341*
Neatness	8	5.2	25	4.2	.282
Nurturance	1	.6	1	.2	1.061
Patriotism	0	0	6	1.0	1.568
Popularity	2	1.3	26	4.4	3.216
Practicality	7	4.5	33	5.6	.247
Quality	19	12.3	69	11.6	.061
Respect for Elderly	0	0	3	.5	.781
Safety	0	0	13	2.2	3.430
Sex	2	1.3	27	4.5	3.459
Social Status	15	9.7	27	4.5	6.227*
Technology	14	9.1	31	5.2	3.243
Tradition	4	2.6	40	6.7	3.780
Uniqueness	4	2.6	43	7.2	4.474*
Wealth	7	4.5	21	3.5	.346
Wisdom	2	1.3	9	1.5	.040
Work	0	0	2	.3	.520
Youth	5	3.2	28	4.7	.624

- ¹ Percentages may not total 100 percent because of rounding.

- ³ X² values indicate difference in the frequencies of each cultural value regarding countries.

- * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .00$

- Dominant values are bolded.

Inspection of Table 6.3 revealed that the most frequently occurring dominant values shown by frequency measures reflected in the Chinese magazine advertisements were “beauty”, “economy”, “health” and “leisure”. The dominant values reflected in UK magazine advertisements were “enjoyment”, “convenience”, and “individualism”. Common to both countries are “knowledge”, “effectiveness”, and “quality”. Percentage frequency of 10 percent was measured as an off point of dominant values (Chan, 1999). Five cultural values with zero frequency were “adventure”, “patriotism”, “respect for elderly”, “safety”, and “work” in Chinese magazine advertisements.

Further Chi-square tests were conducted to investigate whether the cultural values presented in the advertising shared significance differences between China and the UK. Of the 28 values with non-zero frequencies, nine values had significant *P*-values, including the frequency of six dominant cultural values between the two countries’ magazine advertising (see Table 6.3 cultural values were marked with ** and *** in bold). These significant values will be discussed further in the following paragraphs about testing the hypotheses (H1 and H2),

For the convenience of examining the similarities and/or differences in dominant cultural values between the two countries’ magazine advertising, Table 6.4 presents the dominant cultural values and the significant values between the two samples. It is evident in this table that Chinese magazine advertisements have seven dominant values, they were “knowledge” (30.5 percent), “beauty” (28.6 percent), “economy” (14.3 percent), “effectiveness” (13.6 percent), “leisure” (13 percent), “quality” (12.3 percent), and “health” (10.4 percent) respectively. The six most dominant values in UK magazine advertisements were “enjoyment” (16 percent), “effectiveness” (12.6 percent), “quality” (11.6 percent), “convenience” (10.9 percent), “knowledge” (10.9 percent), and individualism” (10.8 percent). “Effectiveness”, “knowledge” and “quality” were the only three dominant values shared by the both countries’ magazine advertisements.

**Table 6.4 Dominant Cultural Values Manifest in
Chinese and UK Magazine Advertisements**

China Dominant Cultural Values				UK Dominant Cultural Values			
Cultural Values	%	E/R	T/M	Cultural Values	%	E/R	T/M
Knowledge	30.5***	R	M	Enjoyment	16 ***	E	M
Beauty	28.6***	E	T	Effectiveness	12.6	R	M
Economy	14.3**	R	M	Quality	11.6	R	M
Effectiveness	13.6	R	M	Convenience	10.9***	R	M
Leisure	13.0	E	M	Knowledge	10.9	R	M
Quality	12.3	R	M	Individualism	10.8***	E	M
Health	10.4	R	T				

- ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .00$
- E = Emotional cultural values, R = Rational cultural values.
- T = Traditional cultural values, M = Modern cultural values.

Inspection of Table 6.4 initially revealed that most Chinese dominant cultural values had a tendency to use more rational and modern cultural values in the selected magazine advertising. Nevertheless, UK magazine advertisements also tended to use more rational values, but with purely modern cultural values dominated. The statistics of advertising content analysis tests results in the rejection of hypotheses H1 and H2 that Chinese magazine advertisements tended to use more rational and modern cultural values. In order to provide solid evidence of testing hypotheses H1 and H2, further data analyses and interpretation were addressed in the following paragraphs.

Since three dominant cultural values in the advertisements from both countries overlap, there were actually ten cultural values that dominate either Chinese or UK magazine advertisements. A comparison of these ten cultural values regard to their differences in frequency point to three important findings. First, the values of “beauty”, “knowledge” (all at $p < .000$) and “economy” ($p < .001$) were all used significantly more often in Chinese than in UK magazine advertisements. In particular, the value “knowledge” showed a higher proportion in Chinese magazine advertisements (30.5 percent) than in UK advertisements (10.9 percent). In contrast, the values “convenience”

($p < .003$), “enjoyment” ($p < .000$), and “individualism” ($p < .000$) were used significantly more often in UK than in Chinese magazine advertisements. The value “enjoyment” was used even more frequently in UK magazine advertisements (16 percent) than in Chinese advertisements (0.6 percent). Third, the differences in the frequencies of “effectiveness”, “health”, “leisure”, and “quality” in both countries’ magazine advertisements were statistically insignificant. Results of significance tests revealed that the values used the most in Chinese magazine advertisements were more rational values, according to the significant rational values found in “knowledge” and “economy”, while UK magazine advertisements had more dominant emotional cultural values. All significant difference values embraced the modern cultural values.

Table 6.3 reports the test statistics for test H1 and H2. Inspection of the statistics of data analyses for 33 cultural values in Table 6.3 revealed that of the six values used significantly more often in UK magazine advertisements, four (“adventure”, “enjoyment”, “individualism” and “uniqueness”) were emotional cultural values while another two (“convenience” and “naturalness”) were rational cultural values. However, of the four values which occurred significantly more often in Chinese magazine advertisements, “beauty” and “social status” were emotional cultural values, and “economy” and “knowledge” were rational cultural values. Accordingly, it was most likely that Chinese magazine advertisements reflected a mix cultural values, however, the value “economy” and “knowledge”, which accounted for 45 percent, and was at a higher proportion than those of rational cultural values found. It was also evident in this table that UK magazine advertisements embraced much more emotional values than Chinese magazine advertisements.

In addition, most of the six values used significantly more often in UK magazine advertisements were typical of modern cultural values (Western culture) except the traditional value “naturalness”. However, of the four

values employed significantly more often in Chinese magazine advertisements, value “economy” and “knowledge” belonged to modern cultural values, while another two values “beauty” and “social status” were typically traditional cultural values (Eastern culture).

As a result, this study has hypothesised that Chinese magazine advertisements would tend to use more emotional cultural values and traditional cultural values than UK advertisements. Hypotheses H1 and H2 were not supported by the findings by the occurrences and significant values of the 33 cultural values (see Table 6.3) and the 10 dominant cultural values (see Table 6.4) were observed.

6.3.3 Comparative Analyses of Product Categories and Cultural Values in Chinese and UK Magazine Advertising

According to the literature review (see Chapter 2), consumers’ cultural values are regarded as the governing ideas and principles for thought and action in a given society and are a powerful force shaping consumers’ motivations, lifestyles, and product choices (Srikandath, 1991; Tse *et al.*, 1989). This section, therefore, discussed the comparisons of the relative important effects between product categories and cultural values in China and the UK magazine advertisements. It attempts to provide more insight into the importance of the role of cultural values in advertising content. Tables 6.5 and 6.6 summarise the total frequencies of the 28 cultural values in China (deleted the zero frequency of 5 values) and of the 33 cultural values in UK advertisements, as well as the percentage frequencies occurring for each product category with the assessed X^2 -values reported in the last column. Chi-square tests were conducted to check whether the cultural values displayed would depend on the types of products and services advertised. The results revealed that product categories had a strong influence on the

cultural values portrayed in magazine advertisements from both countries. Of the 28 cultural values with non-zero frequencies presented in Chinese magazine advertisements, 10 generated significant *P*-values for the types of products and services advertised. In the UK, of the 33 cultural values with non-zero frequencies depicted in magazine advertisements, 20 had significant *P*-values on the product category advertised. These findings indicated that advertisements for a specific product category tended to use similar appeals.

In Table 6.5, for the seven dominant values (emboldened) in Chinese magazine advertisements, six had significantly different values between cultural values and product categories. The “knowledge” value was found most frequently used in advertisements for education (89 percent) and medicine (54 percent). The “beauty” value occurred most frequently in household appliances (58 percent), personal care (46 percent) and cosmetics and fashion (42 percent) advertisements. Audio/visual products were advertised most frequently using both “economy” and “quality” values. The “leisure” value had higher proportions of personal care (36 percent) and household appliances (26 percent) advertisements. Medicine (37.5 percent) and household appliance (26.3 percent) advertisements were more concerned with “health” appeals. There were no significant differences on the subject of the “effectiveness” value among product category advertisements.

The statistics of frequency tests in Table 6.6 revealed that the six dominant cultural values in UK magazine advertisements had all significant values, indicating significant differences between cultural values and product categories. “Enjoyment”, a value depicted significantly more often in UK than in Chinese magazine advertisements, was mainly used for audio/visual products (42 percent), entertainment (40 percent), and food and drink (38 percent). “Convenience”, another value that occurred significantly more frequently in UK than in Chinese magazine advertisements, was most used

in personal care (44 percent) and consumer electrical products (36 percent) advertisements. “Individualism”, a typical Western cultural value, was most often used in cars and motorbikes (19 percent) and cosmetics and fashion (16 percent) advertisements in the UK. Unlike Chinese magazine advertisements, the “effectiveness” value had significant differences on products and services advertised. It was found to be the most frequently used “effectiveness” value in “medicine” (46 percent) and “household appliances” (43 percent) advertisements. The same results were obtained from Chinese magazine advertisements, the “knowledge” value also occurred most often in education (50 percent) and medicine (24 percent) in British magazine advertisements. While both countries mainly used “quality” value in audio/visual products (33 percent, UK), UK magazine advertisements tended to utilise the “quality” value more frequently in food and drink (24 percent) and consumer electrical products (18 percent) compared with cosmetics and fashion (17 percent) and services (17 percent) in Chinese magazine advertisements. The ‘economy” value occurred most frequently in home interior and improvement (38 percent) and entertainment (25 percent) advertisements.

6.3.4 Discussion of Chinese and UK Magazine Advertising

China

Of the seven dominant values found in the sample, five represented rational cultural values (“knowledge”, “economy”, “effectiveness”, “quality” and “health”) and two represented emotional cultural values (“beauty” and “leisure”). The top two dominant values, “knowledge” and “beauty”, were either utilitarian or symbolic in nature. In addition, of the four values (“beauty”, “economy”, knowledge”, and “social status”) which occurred significantly more often in Chinese magazine advertisements, “beauty” and “social status” belonged to emotional and symbolic values, and “economy”

Table 6.5 Frequencies of cultural Values Manifest by Product Categories in China

[illegible]

Table 6.5 Frequencies of cultural Values Manifest by Product Categories in China (Continued)

Cultural Values	Frequencies N	(%)	CF (%)	HA (%)	ME (%)	PC (%)	SE (%)	HI (%)	ED (%)	AV (%)	CE (%)	MI (%)	X ² values ^a (df = 9)
Tradition	4	2.6	3.3	0	4.2	0	0	0	11.1	0	0	0	4.567
Uniqueness	4	2.6	6.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6.434
Family	3	1.9	1.7	0	4.2	0	16.7	0	0	0	0	0	8.720
Popularity	2	1.3	1.7	0	0	0	0	0	11.1	0	0	0	7.942
Sex	2	1.3	3.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3.175
Wisdom	2	1.3	3.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3.175
Individualism	1	0.6	1.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.577
Enjoyment	1	0.6	0	5.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7.152
Nurturance	1	0.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	76.497***

CF = Cosmetics & Fashion
FD = Food & Drink
HA = Household Appliances
ME = Medicine

PC = Personal Care
SE = Services
CA = Cars & Motorbikes
HI = Home Interior & Improvement

ED = Education
AV = Audio/Visual Products
CE = Consumer Electrical product

EN = Entertainment
MI = Miscellaneous

^a X² values indicate differences in the frequencies of each cultural value regarding product categories.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .00$

Table 6.6 Frequencies of cultural Values Manifest by Product Categories in the UK

Cultural Values	Frequencies N	(%)	CF (%)	FD (%)	HA (%)	ME (%)	PC (%)	SE (%)	CM (%)	HI (%)	ED (%)	AV (%)	CE (%)	EN (%)	MI (%)	X ² values ^a (df = 12)
Enjoyment	95	16	15	38	2.1	6.1	8.7	15.9	0	18.8	0	41.7	5.6	40	0	60.631***
Effectiveness	75	12.6	7.1	4.2	42.6	45.5	17.4	2.3	0	25	50	8.3	13.9	0	60	109.297***
Quality	69	11.6	11.4	23.9	0	6.1	4.3	6.8	6.5	25	0	33.3	16.7	0	20	33.096***
Convenience	65	10.9	3.5	9.9	17	9.1	43.5	15.9	3.2	12.5	0	25	36.1	0	40	77.153***
Knowledge	65	10.9	5.5	5.6	14.9	24.2	21.7	20.5	22.6	6.3	50	0	11.1	25	0	37.265***
Individualism	64	10.8	15.7	7	4.3	3	0	9.1	19.4	0	0	0	8.3	15	0	21.803*
Beauty	59	9.9	16.9	0	31.9	0	4.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	69.863***
Leisure	59	9.9	12.2	9.9	2.1	9.1	13	18.2	0	12.5	0	0	0	20	0	20.156
Naturalness	48	8.1	12.2	5.6	6.4	0	0	18.2	6.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	25.648*
Modernity	46	7.7	11	2.8	6.4	0	4.3	12.9	6.3	0	0	8.3	11.1	10	0	15.705
Uniqueness	43	7.2	7.9	4.2	0	6.1	4.3	4.5	12.9	6.3	0	0	25	5	0	26.659*
Health	40	6.7	2	14.1	6.4	51.5	8.7	4.5	0	6.3	0	0	0	0	0	128.805***
Tradition	40	6.7	5.1	18.3	2.1	0	4.3	13.6	6.5	0	0	0	5.6	5	20	27.468**
Competition	39	6.6	2	5.6	8.5	18.2	0	6.8	12.9	6.3	50	25	11.1	15	20	37.853***
Economy	37	6.2	2.4	5.6	0	3	0	18.2	12.9	37.5	0	8.3	5.6	25	0	64.335***
Adventure	35	5.9	9.5	7.0	6.4	0	0	2.3	16.1	0	0	8.3	2.8	0	0	15.200
Practicality	33	5.6	5.9	0	4.3	3	21.7	2.3	3.2	12.5	0	16.7	11.1	0	0	25.494*
Technology	31	5.2	5.5	1.4	4.3	0	0	0	19.4	0	0	8.3	16.7	5	0	31.287**
Youth	28	4.7	8.7	2.8	4.3	0	0	4.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18.212
Sex	27	4.5	6.3	2.8	8.5	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	5.6	0	0	15.667

Table 6.6 Frequencies of cultural Values Manifest by Product Categories in the UK (Continued)

Cultural Values	Frequencies N	(%)	CF (%)	FD (%)	HA (%)	ME (%)	PC (%)	SE (%)	CM (%)	HI (%)	ED (%)	AV (%)	CE (%)	EN (%)	MI (%)	X ² Values ^a (df = 9)
Social Status	27	4.5	9.8	0	0	0	0	0	3.2	6.3	0	0	0	0	0	30.610**
Sex	27	4.5	6.3	2.8	8.5	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	5.6	0	0	15.667
Social Status	27	4.5	9.8	0	0	0	0	0	3.2	6.3	0	0	0	0	0	30.610**
Popularity	26	4.4	5.5	4.2	2.1	0	0	4.5	0	0	0	0	5.6	15	20	15.139
Neatness	25	4.2	6.3	1.4	12.8	3	4.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20.079
Family	23	3.9	0.4	5.6	4.3	3	8.7	6.8	12.9	18.8	0	0	8.3	0	0	31.198**
Magic	23	3.9	3.5	7	6.4	3	0	2.3	6.5	0	0	0	0	50	20	10.854
Wealth	21	3.5	5.9	4.2	0	0	0	2.3	3.2	0	0	8.3	0	0	0	11.978
Safety	13	2.2	14	0	2.1	3	17.4	2.3	16.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	60.535***
Collectivism	11	1.9	2.4	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10.944
Wisdom	9	1.5	0	1.4	0	0	0	4.5	3.2	0	50	8.3	0	15	0	69.309***
Patriotism	6	1	1.6	2.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5.873
Respect for Elderly	3	0.5	0	0.4	0	3	0	2.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8.322
Work	2	0.3	0	0	0	0	0	4.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25.084*
Nurturance	1	0.2	0	1.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7.379
<hr/>																
CF = Cosmetics & Fashion		PC = Personal Care		HI = Home Interior & Improvement		CE = Consumer Electrical products										
FD = Food & Drink		SE = Services		ED = Education		EN = Entertainment										
HA = Household Appliances		CA = Cars & Motorbikes		AV = Audio/Visual Products		MI = Miscellaneous										
ME = Medicine																

^a X^a values indicate differences in the frequencies of each cultural value regarding product categories.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

and “knowledge” were from rational and utilitarian values. Furthermore, the “beauty” value was often used in household appliances, personal care, cosmetics and fashion advertisements as stress on personal appearance or social interaction. Consequently, the emphasis on a value-for-money purchase and product performance indicated that Chinese advertising had been very practical and rational.

Unlike the results obtained from the content analysis of Chinese magazine advertising (Cheng, 1994) and television advertising (Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996), it can be seen from this study that China’s advertising placed much less emphasis on “modernity” and “technology” values. Cheng *et al.* (1994, 1996) argued that the heavy use of “modernity” and “technology” values in Chinese advertising was because of the limited consumption experience of the consumers and the strong desire to tie in with the political philosophy of the “Four Modernisation” programme. Since China introduced its “open door” policy, the social change in China over the past two decades has led Chinese people from finding things that were new, up-to-date and contemporary attractive to demand more practical and social interaction appealing, such as emphasis on “economy”, “beauty” and “social status” values. Especially, the “beauty” and “social status” values put emphasis on human feelings of being recognised and prestige. These values also reconfirmed the importance of “face” in Chinese societies (Bond and Hwang, 1986). Although most of Chinese consumers were unlikely to have as high a personal income as UK people did, the “one-child” policy has left a substantial amount of spending money among young adults. Moreover, China’s rapid change to a market-driven economy has shown an increasing growth and sophistication of retailing and media as a direct response to the growth in consumer spending (Market: Asia Pacific, 1996). With wide exposure to mass media, Chinese young adults now have abundant consumption experience and uninterrupted encounters with advertising. As discussion of cultural values in Chinese advertising in Section 2.8.1.1 in Chapter 2, it was expected that Chinese advertising would use more emotional cultural values. In this study, however,

only two of the seven dominant values found in the sample (the second and fifth most frequently occurring values), “beauty” and “leisure”, were emotional values in nature. As the “beauty” value contains the idea of advertising to promote products that will enhance the loveliness, attractiveness, elegance, or handsomeness of an individual, it is often used in Hong Kong as well as the US (Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996). The emphasis on personal appearance and feelings reconfirmed the importance of the self-centred individual caused by China’s “one-child” policy (Hall, 1987). The set of dominant cultural values manifest in Chinese advertising also indicated that China tended to utilise more modern culture. The typical traditional and Eastern cultural values such as “family” (1.9 percent), “respect for elderly” (0 percent) and “tradition” (2.6 percent) occurred only sparingly throughout this study.

The dominance of the “quality” value found in this study was quite similar to the results obtained by Rice and Lu (1988), Tse *et al.* (1989) and Cheng (1994). Other dominant values in China, “knowledge”, “economy”, “effectiveness” and “health”, found in this study emphasised the value of and product performance which was different from previous studies. These dominant values reconfirmed the change of consumption experience and exposure to mass media in China. The findings in this study provided some different results compared with previous studies (Cheng, 1994; Cheng and Schweitzer, 1996; Tse, Belk and Zhou 1989). Tse, Belk and Zhou (1989) examined print advertisements for the period 1979 to 1985, and discovered that Chinese print advertisements were focused on utilitarian values. Cheng’s (1994) study of Chinese magazine advertisements from 1982 and 1992 found that the values less frequently used in 1992 advertisements are utilitarian in nature and centred around product quality, the values increasing in occurrence are more symbolic and suggestive of human emotions. In 1996, Cheng and Schweitzer studied Chinese and US TV commercials for which data were collected in 1993. They found that Chinese TV commercials were more symbolic in nature, in common with Eastern culture.

Consequently, in response to the economic and societal changes in China over the past two decades, Chinese advertising has tended to use more rational cultural values combined with traditional and modern cultures.

UK

Of the six dominant values found in the sample, four represented rational cultural values (“effectiveness”, “quality”, “convenience” and “knowledge”) and two represented emotional cultural values (“enjoyment” and “individualism”). The top two dominant values, “enjoyment” and “effectiveness”, were either symbolic or utilitarian in nature. The results also showed that several dominant values emphasised living standard requirements, such as “enjoyment” and “quality” values, and these were often used in food and drink, audio/visual products, consumer electrical products and entertainment advertisements. Consequently, the emphasis on enjoyment with product performance and features indicated that UK advertising had also been very practical and rational, but with different cultural values appealing.

Most previous studies of UK advertising found that it utilised affiliation, tradition/history and eccentricity values (Caillat and Mueller, 1996; Frith and Wesson, 1991; Katz and Lee, 1992; Weinberger and Spotts, 1989) when compared with a similar language and/or culture, such as the US. There are, however, few clear indications of the predominant cultural values which are embraced in UK magazine advertisements. It can be seen from this study that UK advertising placed much more emphasis on Western values, such as the six dominant values “enjoyment”, “effectiveness”, “quality”, “convenience”, “knowledge” and “individualism”. Unlike their Chinese counterparts, UK consumers have a greater consumption experience and have been exposed to mass media for a much longer period. It is likely that people living in a low-context culture, such as the UK, need some more solid information in advertising and prefer directness in speech (Firth and Wesson, 1991; Hall, 1989). The findings of six dominant UK cultural values, therefore,

reconfirmed that UK advertising tended to use more rational cultural values in nature. Of six dominant values in UK magazine advertisements, four cultural values emphasised product performance, such as “effectiveness”, “quality”, “convenience” and “knowledge”. In addition, of the six values which occurred significantly more often in UK magazine advertisements, “convenience” and “naturalness” belonged to traditional cultures, and “adventure”, “enjoyment”, “individualism” and “uniqueness” were from modern cultures. It suggested that UK advertising obviously utilised more Western culture in nature when compared with a different cultural environment. Moreover, the dominance of the “enjoyment” and “individualism” values found in this study suggested that UK young adults tended to put emphasis on self-sufficiency and self-reliance of an individual with enjoyment of product benefits.

Consequently, in response to the developed economic and low-context, individualism orientation cultures in the UK, UK advertising has tended to use more rational cultural values with modern cultures in nature.

6.3.5 Section Summary

In summary, Chinese magazine advertising was strongly influenced by Western culture. Results indicated that the set of dominant cultural values was mainly Western culture and modern values in nature and there were no typical Eastern values. All the cultural values used significantly more often in China contained both traditional and modern cultural values. With a rapid growth over two decades, China’s advertising industry has been growing towards a “mature” stage and has become far more sophisticated than before. The findings discovered that Chinese magazine advertising tended to use more rational cultural values. The set of dominant cultural values found in China’s magazine advertising was mainly rational values. All the cultural values utilised more frequently in Chinese magazine advertising

contained both rational and emotional values. The combination of rational and emotional cultural values in Chinese magazine advertising put emphasis on both product performance as well as human feelings of being recognised and prestige. Consequently, it revealed that Chinese magazine advertising had a close interaction of both rational and emotional cultural values, and traditional and modern cultures, China's advertising was basically moving towards becoming more international.

Although the set of dominant cultural values found in UK magazine advertising contained mainly rational cultural values, but with all belonged to Western culture in nature. All the cultural values used significantly more often in the UK also contained primarily modern cultural values. UK magazine advertising reflected its low-context culture which tended towards rational cultural values and practical appeals.

The results also showed that specific values were more often adopted by advertisements of specific types of products and services. However, there is no evidence that these values will be more readily accepted by consumers. Nevertheless, this finding suggested that advertisers in China would inevitably resort to utilitarian values as frequently as UK advertisers are doing today.

6.4 Emotional Responses of Advertising Appeals

The diverse cultural impact on advertising appeals was examined using a selected number of magazine advertisements by the two nations' young adults. The Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale (Plutchik, 1980) was applied to test the use of emotional appeals advertising in terms of basic emotions (see Section 3.3 in Chapter 3). Hypothesis three is, therefore, tested to provide further insight into the relative effectiveness of advertising appeals in international advertising messages. Hypothesis H3 states as follows:

H 3 UK and Chinese young adults tend to experience similar positive basic emotions when exposed to emotional appeals advertising.

In this section, the investigation of advertising appeals was based on the concept of eight basic emotions developed by Plutchik (1980) to examine the responses to different emotional appeals used in Chinese and UK magazine advertisements separately. Data analyses are presented the description of the advertisements sample profile and measure, followed by the assessment of reliability for Plutchik's Mood Rating scale and the discussion of the findings in the following sub-sections.

6.4.1 Advertisements Sample Profile and Measure

The sample consisted of 16 different emotional advertisements in total – 8 from each country's magazines. 281 subjects from China examined 8 different emotional advertisements from Chinese magazines. 263 respondents from the UK tested 8 different emotional advertisements from UK magazines.

Chinese Advertisements

The eight different Chinese magazine emotional advertisements were numbered as advertisement through A to H. Each advertisement is described briefly as following.

- ad A – An Asian girl demonstrates a diamond ring on her finger with three people in the background.
- ad B – Two young girls with smiling and fresh faces show a facial cleanser.
- ad C – A middle aged Asian woman with smooth skin presents a skin care product.
- ad D – An Asian film star with long black shining hair shows a shampoo product.
- ad E – An Asian woman in white a long dress stands on the beach with a description in English on a blue sky and ocean background, presenting a cleanser.
- ad F – A gold watch is presented in a pearl shell.
- ad G – A mother puts her hand on her little girl's shoulder showing hand care cream.
- ad H – A young smiling woman wears a fashionable dress with many different coloured lipsticks as background.

UK Advertisements

Another eight emotional advertisements from UK magazines were numbered as advertisement through I to P. The description of each emotional advertisement is listed below.

- ad I – A watch is presented with the background of a man surfing.
- ad J – A man in a red ski jacket skis down from the snowy hill.
- ad K – A woman wearing pink lipstick presents a branded lipstick.
- ad L – Two men wearing sailor hats with tattoos on their arms show a man's cologne.

- ad M – A woman and a man's hand are tied together with cord by their thumb on which a bottle of perfume hangs.
- ad N – A woman puts cream on a man's face with a bottle of alcoholic drink.
- ad O – Two carnival dressed women dance together with a background of fruits, demonstrating a tropical soft drink.
- ad P – A tea cup with built in alarm clock rings alongside a box of tea bags.

Full copies of these advertisements are reproduced in Appendices 1 and 2. The eight emotions from the Plutchik's Mood Rating scale represented four pairs of the basic emotional groups. They are happy versus fearful, pleasant versus angry, interested versus disgusted, and surprised versus sad. These eight basic emotions were divided into positive and negative emotions. The positive basic emotions contained happy, pleasant, interested and surprised. In contrast, fearful, angry, disgusted and sad are presented as the negative basic emotions.

6.4.2 Reliability and Validity Assessment

The measures of Plutchik's Mood Rating scale was developed by scanning the measures appearing in the literature (Plutchik, 1980a), and by pre-testing using Chinese and UK students (see Section 3.3). Therefore, construct validity can be postulated to be supportive of face validity. Each item in the construct of Plutchik's Mood Rating scale is a single construct based on a small number of well-established items and, therefore, no factor analysis is utilised to test its construct validity.

Reliability analysis was conducted based on Cronbach's alpha with the complete original Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale. The recommended

acceptable level was a Cronbach's alpha larger than 0.70, which was found to be sufficient in most basic research (Nunnally, 1978). A total of 281 Chinese respondents, 142 from Xiamen and 139 from Tainjin, completed the testing of each Chinese emotional advertisement by examining each eight-item Plutchik's Mood Rating scale. The results of testing Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the overall scale were equal to 0.8570 in Xiamen and 0.9069 in Tainjin. Reliability assessment in China is expected to be for such an established scale.

In the UK, a total of 263 participants, 139 from Leicester and 124 from London, responded to an eight-item Plutchik's Mood Rating scale. Eight different advertisements from UK magazines were examined through each eight-item Plutchik's Mood Rating Scales. The reliability coefficient for the overall scale was equal to 0.9116 in Leicester and 0.8896 in London. The expectation of this scale measure was the same as in China as it was a well-established scale. To give an overview, the results of the two countries' Cronbach's alpha coefficients are depicted in Table 6.7. Details of the internal consistency for emotional scales output using SPSS program are presented in Appendix 6 (UK) and Appendix 7 (China).

Table 6.7 Internal Consistency Reliability of Plutchik's Mood Rating Scale

Country	Alpha	No. of Cases	No. of Items
China			
Xiamen	0.8570	142	64
Tainjin	0.9069	139	64
UK			
Leicester	0.9116	139	64
London	0.8896	124	64

6.4.3 Hypothesis Testing

The test of hypothesis H3 was conducted to identify how cultural differences influence consumers' responses towards variously emotional appeals advertised the two countries. The test was carried out by Paired-Samples t-test with SPSS based on data from the two sample groups. In testing the hypothesis, subjects' responses towards eight advertisements from each country were examined by comparing the mean differences of subjects' emotional responses towards each advertisement in each pair of the basic emotion groups. For example, subjects' responses to an advertisement of group means towards the "happy" emotion was compared to their response group means towards the "fearful" emotion, and responses to an advertisement of group means towards the "pleasant" emotion was compared to the "angry" emotion, and so on. Table 6.8 presents a series of Paired-Sample t-tests to examine whether there are significantly statistical differences between the group means among the pairs of basic emotions for each advertisement. Since subjects only viewed their own country's advertisements, data analyses were examined separately from each country using Paired-Samples t-test. The findings for each country were then evaluated together to see if both countries' young adults had similar positive emotions towards the emotional appeals used in the magazine advertising.

China

First, all 281 subjects in China, regardless of advertisements, were pooled together to examine the overall response pattern. Inspection of the statistics of Paired-Samples t-test for testing Chinese respondents in Table 6.8 revealed that the differences were all highly significant for all pairs of the basic emotion groups. For example, when exposed to 8 selected magazine advertisements, the subjects' "happy" reactions towards the advertisements had more similar emotions than "fearful" emotions ($t = 27.27, p < .000$).

Table 6.8 Paired Samples T-Test, China

Advertisements No. (Chinese N = 281)	Mean	SD	t value df=280	Sig. p
Ad A				
Happy vs. Fearful	1.14	1.24	15.45	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.29	1.21	17.90	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.10	1.32	14.00	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.20	0.69	4.93	0.000
Ad B				
Happy vs. Fearful	1.37	1.24	18.50	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.39	1.17	20.00	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.10	1.43	12.87	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.11	0.57	3.23	0.001
Ad C				
Happy vs. Fearful	-0.78	1.54	-8.43	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	-0.19	1.36	-2.29	0.023
Interested vs. Disgusted	-1.02	1.64	-10.38	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	1.14	1.36	14.10	0.000
Ad D				
Happy vs. Fearful	1.31	1.39	15.87	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.27	1.45	14.74	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.11	1.54	12.16	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.22	0.93	3.90	0.000
Ad E				
Happy vs. Fearful	1.06	1.47	12.05	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.15	1.35	14.32	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.42	1.73	13.79	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.62	1.21	8.54	0.000
Ad F				
Happy vs. Fearful	1.24	1.36	15.34	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.30	1.34	16.21	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.56	1.45	18.12	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.49	1.12	7.39	0.000
Ad G				
Happy vs. Fearful	1.68	1.39	20.34	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.61	1.43	18.93	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.46	1.39	17.58	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.21	0.78	4.41	0.000
Ad H				
Happy vs. Fearful	0.41	1.84	3.70	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	0.49	1.71	4.85	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	0.05	1.80	0.46	0.644
Surprise vs. Sad	0.65	1.19	9.21	0.000
<hr/>				
Ads in Total (Chinese N = 2248)	Mean	SD	t value df=2247	Sig. p
Happy vs. Fearful	0.93	1.62	27.27	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.04	1.49	33.14	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	0.85	1.75	22.94	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.46	1.06	20.26	0.000

Second, a series of Paired-Samples t-tests were performed to examine whether there were significant differences in means between the pairs of advertisements from each Chinese emotional appeal advertising separately. The Paired-Samples t-test results revealed that the significance levels were less than .05 for the mean differences for four pairs of comparisons in each advertisement except “ad H” (“interested” vs. “disgusted”; $t = 0.46, p > 0.05$). When exposed to the “ad A”, Chinese subjects’ reactions reported more positive emotions than negative emotions. For example, Chinese participants’ responses felt significantly more “happy” than “fearful” emotions ($t = 15.45, p = .000$); more “pleasant” than “angry” emotions ($t = 17.90, p = .000$); more “interested” than “disgusted” emotions ($t = 14, p = .000$); and more “surprised” than “sad” emotions ($t = 4.93, p = .000$). The same findings were found for other advertisements B, D, E, F and G shown in Table 6.8. When exposed to the “ad C”, Chinese subjects, however, showed more negative emotions. Since the magazine advertisements contained those “fearful”, “angry”, “disgusted” and “sad” negative emotions were hardly found in the present collection of the advertisements from both countries, “Ad C” particularly was chosen to test response of the negative emotions for Chinese young adults. “Ad C” presents a middle-aged woman with unpleasant and poorer colour print quality. As predicted, Chinese participants’ reactions towards “ad C” had significantly more “fearful” than “happy” ($t = -8.43, p = .000$); more “angry” than “pleasant” ($t = -2.29, p = .023$); more “disgusted” than “interested” ($t = -10.38, p = .000$). They, however, responded more “surprised” than “sad” emotions towards the “ad C” ($t = 14.10, p = .000$). “Ad H” presents a young smiling woman in a fashion dress with many different coloured lipsticks as background. Chinese subjects’ reactions towards “ad H” indicated no significant differences between “interested” and “disgusted” emotions ($t = .46, p = .644$). Other pairs of the emotional groups were significantly different and showed more positive emotions than negative emotions.

UK

The same analysis procedures were applied to the UK respondents, and are presented in Table 6.9. Overall, UK participants also had very significant differences, regardless of the advertisements, for all four pairs of the emotions groups. For example, UK subjects' reactions towards the advertisements showed more of the "happy" emotion than "fearful" emotion ($t = 28.86, p = .000$).

Further analyses of each advertisement using Paired-Sample t-tests are shown in Table 6.9. The t-test statistics suggested that the UK participants' responses had significant differences among pairs of the emotion groups for each advertisement. For example, when exposed to the "ad I", UK subjects' reported more positive emotions than negative emotions. The results of "ad I" revealed that UK participants' responses had significantly more "happy" than "fearful" emotions ($t = 13.39, p = .000$); more "pleasant" than "angry" emotions ($t = 14.81, p = .000$); more "interested" than "disgusted" emotion ($t = 21.25, p = .000$); and more "surprised" than "sad" ($t = 8.88, p = .000$). The same results were found from other advertisements J, K, L, M, N, O, and P (see Table 6.9). "Ad N", shows a woman putting cream all over a man's face with a black and yellow colour background, and was deliberately as a negative advertisement. The findings, however, pointed out that UK respondents did not have many negative emotions on this selected unpleasant advertisement. It was unexpected that "ad L" had less reaction on the positive basic emotions compared with other advertisements. "Ad L" shows two men wearing sailor hats with tattoos on their arms presenting a man's cologne. It might be that the unattractive or unsophisticated presentation of one model was a feature inducing a lower sense. Although the possibility of colour, models, product, and advertising design, and so on might affect consumers' reactions to "ad L", further investigation of consumers' reactions on advertising appeals would be necessary.

Table 6.9 Paired Samples T-Test, UK

Advertisements No. (British, N = 263)	Mean	SD	t value df=262	Sig. p
Ad I				
Happy vs. Fearful	0.77	0.93	13.39	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	0.93	1.02	14.81	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.41	1.08	21.25	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.44	0.81	8.88	0.000
Ad J				
Happy vs. Fearful	0.57	1.39	6.67	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.07	1.18	14.68	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.69	1.31	20.98	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.63	1.05	9.71	0.000
Ad K				
Happy vs. Fearful	0.59	1.05	9.12	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	0.97	1.02	15.41	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	0.94	1.23	12.37	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.15	0.92	2.69	0.008
Ad L				
Happy vs. Fearful	0.43	1.43	4.88	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	0.25	1.54	2.68	0.008
Interested vs. Disgusted	0.48	1.88	4.14	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.58	1.37	6.85	0.000
Ad M				
Happy vs. Fearful	0.67	1.08	10.10	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	0.92	1.21	12.43	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.35	1.31	16.67	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.59	0.96	9.84	0.000
Ad N				
Happy vs. Fearful	1.15	1.38	13.52	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	0.67	1.35	8.02	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	0.81	1.68	7.84	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.85	1.20	11.51	0.000
Ad O				
Happy vs. Fearful	1.73	1.38	20.34	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	1.39	1.36	16.63	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.61	1.35	19.43	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	1.18	1.30	14.78	0.000
Ad P				
Happy vs. Fearful	0.77	1.41	8.82	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	0.65	1.25	8.48	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	0.93	1.18	12.77	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.55	1.18	7.50	0.000
<hr/>				
Ads in Total (British, N = 22104)	Mean	SD	t value df=2103	Sig. p
Happy vs. Fearful	0.83	1.33	28.86	0.000
Pleasant vs. Angry	0.86	1.29	30.53	0.000
Interested vs. Disgusted	1.15	1.45	36.40	0.000
Surprise vs. Sad	0.62	1.15	24.85	0.000

6.4.4 Discussion of Emotional Responses

In general, the assertion was supported that in responding to emotional appeals in advertising, consumers' reactions were similar more "positive" than "negative" emotions from the two countries. The results of the Paired-Samples t-tests showed that consumers capitalised on similar positive basic emotions, such as "happy", "pleasant", "interested" and "surprised" when exposed to those emotional appeals in advertising. Although both countries' young adults, in this study, were from different countries and went through diverse cultural backgrounds and had different cultural values (see the findings from Section 6.3), they still shared a higher degree of similarity in their basic emotional responses. According to a previous study, Huang (1998) found that consumers from the same country shared more similar social and cultural backgrounds, their emotional developments and experiences were thus more homogeneous, resulting in more similar emotional responses, regardless of being exposed to basic or social-emotional advertising in a global setting. It is evident from this study that Chinese and UK young adults shared similar more positive basic emotions when exposed to different emotional appeals of their own country's advertising. The results also prove that the two nations' young adults had similar reactions on various emotional advertising.

The findings provide some important implications for advertisers and marketers in practice for international or global advertising. First, regardless of nationality, young adults from China and the UK share similar reactions on the positive basic emotions. This reconfirmed that the assumption of young adults in different countries share more similarities compared with other age groups (see Section 2.8.2.2 in Chapter 2). It also supports Levitt's theory (1983) that the "global village" is creating increasingly homogeneous needs and wants. This finding, therefore, suggests that capitalising on consumers' homogeneous responses is essential.

Second, according to the literature review, it suggests that as products become more homogeneous, the emotional attributes of a brand become essential for differentiation. As a result, advertising will tend to rely more heavily on emotions to attract consumers' attention and interest in the field of advertising (Appelbaum and Halliburton, 1993; Huang, 1998; Moore, 1989). Research also indicates that positive mood states created by advertising can have a favourable effect on consumers' evaluation of a product and can be better remembered than non-emotional messages (Holbrook, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Madison, 1990; Shimp, 1981). This finding suggests that "happy" appeals will be better than "fearful" appeals; "pleasant" appeals will be more effective than "angry" appeals; "interested" appeals will be more "useful" than "disgusted" appeals; and "surprised" will be more valuable than "sad" appeals. Advertising practitioners are, therefore, advised to employ emotional appeals supporting positive basic emotions in accordance with their international and global advertising objectives and strategies in order to maximise advertising effects.

6.4.5 Section Summary

In this section the hypothesis H 3 was tested by the analysis on the issue of basic emotional responses on emotional appeals advertising in Chinese and UK magazine advertising. The tests were carried out by Paired-Samples t-tests on the differences of the means measured by the Plutchik's Mood Rating scale instrument. The tests resulted in support of the hypothesis that UK and Chinese young adults tend to experience similar positive basic emotions when exposed to emotional appeals advertising.

The results bear important implications for future research as well as improving understanding between Chinese and UK young adults in the view of international advertising. The findings from the analysis has provided

empirical evidence that not only supports the proposition that both countries' young adults tend to have more similar reactions towards emotional appeals advertising in the field of international advertising, but also points to the significance of the context specificity of positive basic emotions. Under the strategic consideration that capitalising on consumers' homogeneous responses is essential, it has been demonstrated that emotional appeals supporting basic positive emotions are more appropriate than negative emotions, such as "happy" appeals will be more effective than "fearful" appeals. However, it is not clear whether the basic emotions highlighted in this study can be used to capitalise on homogeneous responses among consumers in a global advertising setting since the subjects only viewed their own countries' advertisements. Although some of the selected advertisements contain international products, it is essential to extend the research to a global advertising setting with various emotional appeals supporting the basic emotion continuum in order to maximise advertising effects. It is also necessary to replicate the current findings regarding the relative effects of advertising on consumer behaviour, such as, colours, models, product and advertising design, and so on in the future study.

6.5 Attitudes Towards Advertising in General

In addition to substantiating the previous hypotheses, appropriate analysis of perceptions of attitudes towards advertising in general should enhance international advertisers' and marketers' knowledge in respect to the Chinese new-generation market as well as the UK young generation. In this section the hypothesis test (H4) was to assess the perceptions of attitudes towards advertising in general and was carried out by using the 20-item attitudinal statements adapted from Larkin (1977). The hypothesis is stated as follows:

H 4 There is no difference in perceived attitudes towards advertising in general as reflected in the twenty items of attitudinal statements between the UK and Chinese young adults.

Factor analysis was applied to test hypothesis H4 and examined the underlying beliefs which may account for the similarities and/or differences in perceptions of attitudes towards advertising in general between the two nations' young adults. In addition, factor analysis was also used to examine the cross-cultural applicability of Larkin's framework. In this section, data analyses begin the assessment of reliability and validity, followed by means tests in an attempt to gauge the view of young adults in terms of Larkin's framework from the UK and China. Independent *t*-test demonstrated further interpretation of the results from factor analysis.

6.5.1 Sample Profile and Measure

The tests of hypothesis H4 were administered to 554 subjects selected from business majors in two universities in China, and 352 subjects chosen from business study in two universities in the UK. The measure of attitudes

towards advertising in general was based on 20 attitudinal statements about advertising on five point Likert scales (1=strongly agree, ... 5=strongly disagree). These statements were designed to elicit information concerning four attitudinal areas as adapted from Larkin (1977):

- 1) Economic effects of advertising,
- 2) Social effects of advertising,
- 3) Ethics of advertising,
- 4) Regulation of advertising.

The examination of reliability and validity for Larkin's 20-item scales are presented in Sections 6.5.2 and 6.5.3. Data analyses are presented in the following sub-sections.

6.5.2 Reliability Assessment

The internal consistency of attitudes towards advertising in general was measured using Cronbach's alpha by assessing whether the reliability coefficient exceeded the recommended level of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). The measures were also purified by deleting items with the lowest or negative item-total correlations. An overview of the decisions on the reliability tests for the hypothesis H4 corresponding to the appropriate factors are presented in Table 6.10. The resulting coefficient alpha was between 0.7286 and 0.8130.

In China, 554 respondents completed the 20-item attitudes towards advertising in general scales. An examination of these item scales indicated that item ECO1, ECO2, ECO3, ECO4 and ETH1 had the lowest or negative item-total correlations. The initial Cronbach's Alpha for the overall scale in China was equal to 0.6291. If these five items are removed from the scale

and the reliability analysis rerun, the alpha is raised to 0.7286. Therefore, deletion of these items would enhance this reliability marginally.

Table 6.10 Reliability Assessments of Attitudes towards Advertising in General for the Larkin’s Scale

Code	Statements of Larkin’s 20-item scale	Rejection
ECO1	1. Advertising is essential to the prosperity of our economy.	√
ECO2	2. Advertising helps raise our standard of living.	√
ECO3	3. Advertising results in better products for the public.	√
ECO4	4. In general advertising results in lower prices.	√
ECO5	5. Advertising increases the costs of goods and services.	
ECO6	6. Advertising fosters monopolies.	
ECO7	7. Advertising is wasteful of money.	
SOC1	8. Advertising persuades people to buy things they really don't need.	
SOC2	9. Advertising just tends to confuse people with bewildering choices.	
SOC3	10. Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer.	
SOC4	11. Most advertising is silly and ridiculous.	
SOC5	12. Advertising affects children more than adults.	
SOC6	13. Advertising is making us a nation of conformists.	
SOC7	14. Advertising makes people materialistic.	
ETH1	15. In general, advertisements present a true picture of product advertising.	√
ETH2	16. Too much of today's advertising is false and misleading.	
ETH2	17. There is too much exaggeration in advertising today.	
REG1	18. There is too much advertising today.	
REG2	19. Harmful/dangerous products should not be advertised.	
REG3	20. There should be more government regulation of advertising.	

Source: modified from Larkin, 1971.
 * ECO = Economic, SOC = Social, ETH = Ethics, REG = Regulation.

In the UK, 352 participants responded to the 20-item attitudes towards advertising in general scale. The reliability coefficient for this scale was 0.7561 and was sufficient for a well-established scale. However, in order to compare with China’s scale measures and test construct validity, deletion of the same items as in China was considered appropriate. When items ECO1, ECO2, ECO3, ECO4 and ETH1 are removed and recalculated, the reliability coefficient, Cronbach’s alpha, is increased to 0.8130. As a result of the statistics of Cronbach’s Alpha test revealed that the reliability coefficient for the scales of attitudes towards advertising in general in both China and the UK exceeded the recommended level of 0.70, indicating that most measures

had an acceptable internal consistency. Details of internal consistency for attitude scales output using SPSS program is displayed in Appendix 8 (UK) and Appendix 9 (China).

6.5.3 Validity Assessment

The measures of attitudes scales were developed by scanning the measures appearing in the literature (Larkin, 1977), and by pre-testing using Chinese and UK students (see Section 3.4). Therefore, construct validity can be postulated to be supportive of face validity. In order to explore the multidimensionality of scale items of the construct of Larkin's scale, further refinements can be accomplished by Principal Component factor analysis to test construct validity. The ascertainment of construct validity for the attitude measures also used in this study has assessed by examining its cross-cultural measurement equivalence. A relatively simple approach to construct equivalence was followed rather than trying to make use of confirmatory factor analysis since in this subject area there was very limited evidence of previous validation of constructs, and this had to be, therefore, more of an exploratory study.

Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a data reduction technique used to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set of underlying factors that summarise the essential information contained in the variables. Moreover, factor analysis is used as an exploratory technique when one wishes to summarise the structure of a set of variables. However, when testing a theory about the structure of a particular domain, confirmatory factor analysis is appropriate. In order to construct a reliable analysis of scale measures, therefore, Principal Component factor analysis is an additional means of determining whether items are tapping into the same construct (Hall *et al.*, 1995).

After examination of the internal consistency of attitude scales (see Section 6.5.2), Principal Component factor was performed on SPSS with measures of the 15-item attitudes. As a result of using Principal Component factor analysis, the examination of the Barlett test of Sphericity was highly significant ($p < .001$) for both China and the UK. The value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy can vary between 0 and 1. A value of 0 indicates that the sum of partial correlations is large relative to the sum of correlations, indicating diffusion in the pattern of correlations. Hence, factor analysis is likely to be inappropriate. A value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and so factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors. Kaiser (1974) recommends that the value greater than 0.5 are acceptable. Furthermore, values between 0.5 and 0.7 are mediocre, values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and values above 0.9 are superb (Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999). The test of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy in China was 0.803 and in the UK was 0.826, which indicated both had fallen into the highly acceptable range. Therefore, factor analysis was appropriate for this data (See Table 6.11).

Table 6.11 KMO and Bartlett’s Test of Attitudes towards Advertising in General

		China	UK
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.803	.826
Bartlett’s	Approx. Chi-Square	1438.924	1211.402
Test of	df	105	105
Sphericity	Sig.	.000	.000

The most commonly used techniques for factor extraction are latent root criterion and scree test criterion (Field, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 1995). Kaiser’s

(1960) criterion recommends that all factors with eigenvalues (latent root) of greater than 1 are retained. It suggests that if the number of variables is less than 20, there is a tendency to produce a conservative number of factors (Hair *et al.*, 1995). Although latent root criterion is very useful, factor selection should not be based on this criterion alone. Cattell (1966) advocates a technique to plot a graph of each eigenvalue (Y-axis) against the factor with which it is associated (X-axis). This graph is known as a Scree Plot. Cattell (1966) suggests that the cut-off point for selecting factors should be at the point of inflexion of this curve. Furthermore, Stevens (1992) recommends that the Scree Plot provides a fairly reliable criterion for factor extraction with a sample of more than 200 subjects. As a result, the examination of Eigenvalues over 1 suggested 3 factor solutions for China and 5 factor solutions for the UK. The test of scree plot also provided the same solutions.

Another criteria for the number of factors to be extracted is the a priori criterion, which is a simple yet reasonable criterion under certain circumstances when normally the researcher knows how many factors to extract before undertaking the factor analysis. This approach is justified for testing a theory or hypothesis about the number of factors to be extracted, or replicating another researcher's work and extracting the same number of factors that was previously found (Field, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 1995). In this research, Principal Component factor was for validity test purposes and involved 15 measure items, hence the a priori criterion was used while eigenvalues and scree tests were only taken for reference.

Consequently, a 4-factor solution was judged to have the better fit. This also accorded with the original Larkin's scale which was categorised into 4 major groups: Economic, Social, Ethics and Regulations. Details of the Principal Component factor analysis output are presented in Appendix 10 (UK) and Appendix 11 (China).

With regard to the criteria for the significance of factor loadings, this research is based on the two criteria recommended in the literature (Field, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 1995). The first is practical significance, which regards factor loadings greater than $\pm .30$ as the minimal level, of $\pm .40$ as more important, and of $\pm .50$ as of practical significance. This approach is applicable when the sample size is 100 or larger. The second relates to statistical significance which is based on mathematical considerations and sample size. For example, based on a .05 significance level, a power level of 80 percent, in a sample of 100 respondents, factor loadings of .55 and above are significant; in a sample of 350 respondents, factor loadings of .30 are required for significance. Except the variable had to meet the minimum cut-off point of factor loadings mentioned above, the variable should not be substantially related to more than one factor. Tables 6.12 and 6.13 present the final results of rotated component matrix for Larkin's scale in the UK and China.

Inspection of the results in Tables 6.12 and 6.13 revealed that the construct measuring each belief did not load as perfectly as Larkin's scales suggested (see Table 6.10 for original structure scale). It indicated that the constructs of attitudes towards advertising in general by using Larkin's scales were not applicable across countries and were culturally bound. The 4-factor solution suggested that these fifteen beliefs were reloaded into the new four factors. These four new factors are further interpreted in the following sub-sections.

Table 6.12 Rotated Component Matrix^a for Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, UK

Beliefs	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
SOC2	.815			
SOC1	.726			
SOC7	.586			
SOC6	.505			
ETH2		.774		
ETH3		.706		
REG1		.659		
SOC4		.582		
SOC3		.460		
ECO5			.786	
ECO6			.619	
ECO7			.509	
SOC5			.328	
REG2				.844
REG3				.717

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation
^a Rotation converged in 7 iterations.
* ECO = Economic, SOC = Social, ETH = Ethics, REG = Regulation.

Table 6.13 Rotated Component Matrix^a for Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, China

Beliefs	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
REG3	.691			
REG2	.689			
REG1	.667			
SOC5	.574			
SOC6		.678		
SOC3		.634		
SOC1		.560		
SOC4		.546		
ECO7		.446		
SOC2		.421		
ETH2			.785	
ETH3			.643	
SOC7			.636	
ECO6				.754
ECO5				.645

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation
^a Rotation converged in 7 iterations.
* ECO = Economic, SOC = Social, ETH = Ethics, REG = Regulation.

6.5.4 Perceived Relative Importance of Attitudes Towards Advertising in General from the UK and China

Inspection of the statistics of mean tests in Table 6.14 appeared that in general Chinese respondents had higher ratings than UK participants did in reference to these beliefs. The following discussions are based on Larkin's 4 attitudinal areas: economic, social, ethics and regulation in both countries.

1. Economic effects of advertising

Past research studies have indicated that advertising plays a vital role in promoting economic growth. As can be seen from Table 6.14, both nations' young adults believed that "advertising increases the costs of goods and services" (China, mean = 2.22; SD = 1.25 and UK, mean = 2.28; SD = 1.04), which could result high prices for products. While the respondents in China disagreed that "advertising fosters monopolies" (mean = 3.37; SD = 1.10), on the other hand, the participants in the UK agreed with the statement that "advertising fosters monopolies". Chinese young adults, however, strongly disagreed that "advertising is wasteful of money" (mean = 4.15; SD = 1.02). Unlike Chinese responses, UK young adults disagreed less that "advertising is wasteful of money" (mean = 3.76; SD = 1.06). In general, young adults in China had more positive attitudes towards the economic impact of advertising than young adults in the UK did.

2. Social Effects in Advertising

Although Chinese respondents had optimistic attitudes towards the social effects of advertising, they were sensitive to possible negative social consequences. As can be seen from Table 6.14, three statements about the

Table 6.14 Comparisons of Means for Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, China and the UK

Coding	Attitudinal Statements	Mean			SD	
		China	UK	China	UK	UK
ECO 5	Advertising increases the costs of goods and services	2.22	2.28	1.25	1.04	
ECO 6	Advertising fosters monopolies	3.37	2.95	1.10	0.98	
ECO 7	Advertising is wasteful of money	4.15	3.76	1.02	1.06	
SOC 1	Advertising persuades people to buy things they really don't need	3.29	2.35	1.15	1.00	
SOC 2	Advertising just tends to confuse people with bewildering choices	2.81	2.86	1.15	1.02	
SOC 3	Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer	3.72	3.09	1.14	1.08	
SOC 4	Most advertising is silly and ridiculous	3.61	3.10	1.19	1.12	
SOC 5	Advertising affects children more than adults	2.34	2.52	1.20	1.10	
SOC 6	Advertising is making us a nation of conformists	3.70	2.98	1.13	0.96	
SOC 7	Advertising makes people materialistic	3.28	2.46	1.15	1.07	
ETH 2	Too much of today's advertising is false and misleading	3.29	2.79	1.13	0.97	
ETH 3	There is too much exaggeration in advertising today	2.45	2.44	1.13	0.93	
REG 1	There is too much advertising today	2.11	2.45	1.13	1.08	
REG 2	Harmful/dangerous products should not be advertised	2.17	2.11	1.31	1.18	
REG 3	There should be more government regulation of advertising	1.88	2.44	1.14	1.08	

1=strongly agree;
2=slightly agree
3=neutral;
4=slightly disagree;
5= strongly disagree

social concerns in advertising elicited a strong unanimity of response from the respondents in China. They disagreed with the assertion that “advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer” (mean = 3.72; SD = 1.14). Chinese young adults, however, are improving their ability to choose the products from the mass communications in today’s China. Nevertheless, the respondents in China disagreed that “advertising is silly and ridiculous” (mean = 3.61; SD = 1.19) and they also disagreed with the assertion that “advertising is making them a nation of conformists” (mean = 3.70; SD = 1.13).

Three other attitudinal statements dealing with social concerns in advertising elicited moderate accord among the respondents in China. While Chinese subjects disagreed that “advertising persuades them to buy things they really don’t need” (mean = 3.29; SD = 1.15), they believed that “advertising tends to confuse their choices” (mean = 2.81; SD = 1.15). The participants in China also disagreed that “advertising makes them materialistic” (mean = 3.28; SD = 1.15).

On the other hand, the UK young adults had negative attitudes towards the social effects of advertising. From table 6.14, young adults in the UK, agreed with the assertion that “advertising persuades them to buy things they really don’t need” (mean = 2.35; SD = 1). They thought that “advertising tends to confuse them with various choices” (mean = 2.85; SD = 1.02). They also agreed that “advertising is making them a nation of conformists” (mean = 2.98; SD = .096) and “makes them materialistic” (mean = 2.46; SD = 1.07).

Although young adults in the UK had similar results as Chinese respondents on the subjects of “advertising insults the consumer” (mean = 3.09; SD = 1.08) and “advertising is silly and ridiculous” (mean = 3.10; SD = 1.12), they were much less disagreed on those two subjects compared with Chinese respondents. Both nations’ young adults had positive attitudes that “advertising affects children more than adults”. The statistics indicated that

Chinese young adults were slightly more concerned about advertising affecting children than UK young adults (mean = 2.34 in China; mean = 2.52 in the UK) did.

3. Ethics of Advertising

From the Table 6.14, one statement dealing with ethics concerns advertising eliciting an important accord from the respondents. Both countries' young adults agreed that "much of advertising was exaggeration" (mean = 2.45 in China; mean = 2.44 in the UK). The mean tests, however, showed that Chinese participants had more positive attitudes towards ethics of advertising than UK respondents did. Chinese young adults disagreed that "too much of today's advertising is false and misleading" (mean = 3.29; SD = 1.13), in contrast, UK respondents concurred with the attitudinal statement that "advertising is false and misleading them" (mean = 2.79; SD = 0.97).

4. Regulation of Advertising

Generally, in Table 6.14, most of the respondents had a positive attitude towards regulation beliefs. The statistics revealed that young adults in China were more agreeable on regulation beliefs in advertising than young adults in the UK did. One statement about regulation concerns in advertising elicited a significant accord from Chinese respondents. Chinese participants concurred strongly with the statement that "there should be more government regulations on advertising" (mean = 1.88; SD = 1.14). Both nations' young adults agreed that "harmful/dangerous products should not be advertised" (mean = 2.17 in China; mean = 2.11 in the UK). Yet the advertising industry in China is still less developed than in Western countries. However, the rapid growths of advertising activities around major Chinese cities have had significant impact on its advertising industry. The mean tests showed that Chinese respondents felt that "there was too much advertising today" (mean

= 2.11; SD = 1.13). Similarly, the UK participants also revealed the feeling that there was too much advertising in the UK (mean = 2.45; SD = 1.08).

To sum up, the mean tests provided a view in respect to attitudes towards advertising in general from both nations, but revealed considerable disparity. This raises doubts as to the validity of the Larkin based perception dimensions in an international context. The following further analyses not only applied to test the hypothesis H4, but also concerned the way in which young adults in each country on certain attitudinal dimensions could then be used as the basis for describing the ideas which they hold in common.

6.5.5 Hypothesis Testing

In cross-cultural comparison analysis, an essential ingredient is a variable that forms a scale with identical scale properties for the groups to be compared. It is supposed that “data are equivalent when an observed cross-cultural difference on a measurement scale is matched by a corresponding difference on the comparison scale” (Poortinga, 1989). Therefore, a factor analytic technique was employed to carry out the hypothesis H4 in order to assess the cross-cultural equivalence of Larkin’s instrument.

The previous examination of validity tests using factor analysis (see Section 6.5.3) revealed that Larkin’s construct of 15-item statements was not applicable across countries and was culturally bound, indicating the hypothesis H4 was rejected. These belief statements were factored by Principal Component analysis with varimax rotation (Hair *et. al*, 1995). This analysis yielded new four orthogonal factors extracted from 4 factors basis, which were based on original Larkin scale’s dimensions, from each country. These new four factors were extracted accounting for 51 percent of the total variance in China, and 54 percent of the variance within the data in the UK.

As a result, of examination of factor analysis hypothesis H4 is not supported. There was difference in perceived attitudes towards advertising in general as reflected in the 20 items of attitudinal statements between UK and Chinese young adults.

The new belief factor structure obtained from the Chinese data is presented in Table 6.15, and UK data is presented in Table 6.16. These new four factors extracted from the data had similar attitudinal statements in each factor, but they had different perceptions and dimensions for each country. The new four factors were interpreted based on Larkin's original four areas as follows: economic beliefs, social consequences, ethics concerns, and regulation concerns. The following paragraphs discuss the comparisons between the UK and China based on the new four factors identified. Although the new factors were not identical to the original Larkin structure, most of beliefs were loaded into more or less similar groups. Further mean scores and independent *t*-test analyses were attempted to interpret the significance of differences more meaningful between the two countries.

Economic Beliefs among UK and Chinese Young Adults

Both countries' economic beliefs fell into lower loading scales, 12 percent of variance in the UK and 10 percent of variance in China. While the UK's economic effects in advertising had all 3 economic beliefs loading into one factor as economic groups in Larkin's original scale, the Chinese's economic effects were only 2 loading in economic beliefs. The item ECO7 (advertising is wasteful of money) was extracted from China's economic effects, which Chinese respondents showed ECO7 as a social effect. In this economic factor category, UK respondents had negative attitudes towards advertising regarding "advertising increases the costs of goods and services" and "advertising fosters monopolies". They, however, did not agree that "advertising is wasteful of money". It assumed that they might consider other functions of advertising, such as promotion product, obtaining product information, and so on.

Table 6.15 Rotated Component Matrix for Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, China

Coding	Attitudinal Statements	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
REG3	There should be more government regulation of advertising	0.691			
REG2	Harmful/dangerous products should not be advertised	0.689			
REG1	There is too much advertising today	0.667			
SOC5	Advertising affects children more than adults	0.574			
SOC6	Advertising is making us a nation of conformists		0.678		
SOC3	Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer		0.634		
SOC1	Advertising persuades people to buy things they really don't need		0.560		
SOC4	Most advertising is silly and ridiculous		0.546		
ECO7	Advertising is wasteful of money		0.446		
SOC2	Advertising just tends to confuse people with bewildering choices		0.421		
ETH2	Too much of today's advertising is false and misleading			0.785	
ETH3	There is too much exaggeration in advertising today			0.643	
SOC7	Advertising makes people materialistic			0.636	
ECO6	Advertising fosters monopolies				0.754
ECO5	Advertising increases the costs of goods and services				0.645

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations

Table 6.16 Rotated Component Matrix for Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, UK

Coding	Attitudinal Statements	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
SOC2	Advertising just tends to confuse people with bewildering choices	0.815			
SOC1	Advertising persuades people to buy things they really don't need	0.726			
SOC7	Advertising makes people materialistic	0.586			
SOC6	Advertising is making us a nation of conformists	0.505			
ETH2	Too much of today's advertising is false and misleading		0.774		
ETH3	There is too much exaggeration in advertising today		0.706		
REG1	There is too much advertising today		0.659		
SOC4	Most advertising is silly and ridiculous		0.582		
SOC3	Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer		0.460		
ECO5	Advertising increases the costs of goods and services			0.786	
ECO6	Advertising fosters monopolies			0.619	
ECO7	Advertising is wasteful of money			0.509	
SOC5	Advertisng affects children more than adults			0.328	
REG2	Harmful/dangerous products should not be advertised				0.844
REG3	There should be more government regulation of advertising				0.717

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

On the other hand, Chinese participants tended to have more positive attitudes with mixed feelings about economic effects of advertising. Young adults in China viewed advertising as increasing the cost of goods and services, but they did not think that advertising fostered monopolies. From Table 6.17, the average mean score of Chinese respondents were 2.79 and UK participants had less agreement of average mean score 2.87. In general, it seemed that Chinese young adults had more positive attitudes towards economic beliefs than UK young adults did. However, factor analysis indicated that UK young adults were more concerned with economic beliefs in advertising than the Chinese.

Further analysis by gender of participants revealed that the respondents from both countries had no significant differences in terms of economic beliefs (see Table 6.18 and 6.19, $p > 0.05$ in both countries).

Table 6.17 Comparison of Mean Scores in the UK and China

Factors	UK Mean	China Mean
Economic Beliefs	2.87	2.79
Social Consequences	2.66	3.55
Ethics Concerns	2.77	3.01
Regulation Concerns	2.27	2.12

1=strongly agree;
2=slightly agree
3=neutral;
4=slightly disagree;
5= strongly disagree

Table 6.18 Independent T Test - China

Factors	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	Slg.
Economic Beliefs	male	344	2.82	0.91	1.07	0.287
	female	226	2.74	0.91		
Social Consequences	male	339	3.47	0.72	-3.42	0.001
	female	223	3.67	0.61		
Ethics Concerns	male	344	2.98	0.90	-0.81	0.420
	female	224	3.04	0.78		
Regulation Concerns	male	343	2.18	0.86	1.90	0.057
	female	225	2.04	0.76		

1=strongly agree;
2=slightly agree
3=neutral;
4=slightly disagree;
5= strongly disagree

Table 6.19 Independent T Test - UK

Factors	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	Slg.
Economic Beliefs	male	159	2.87	0.71	0.00	0.998
	female	199	2.87	0.62		
Social Consequences	male	157	2.58	0.75	-1.71	0.088
	female	201	2.72	0.72		
Ethics Concerns	male	156	2.68	0.72	-2.19	0.029
	female	200	2.85	0.73		
Regulation Concerns	male	159	2.38	0.93	1.95	0.052
	female	203	2.19	0.95		

1=strongly agree;
2=slightly agree
3=neutral;
4=slightly disagree;
5= strongly disagree

Social Consequences among UK and Chinese Young Adults

Both social effects of advertising were loaded heavily into social factors, 16 percent of variance in the UK and 14 percent of variance in China. Although both countries' social factors were not loaded perfectly onto original Larkin scale, the findings pointed to underlying similarities in social belief structures because similar items more or less loaded together. In this social factor

category, both nations' young adults indicated that their attitudes towards social image tended towards materialism in advertising. Items SOC1, SOC2 and SOC6 fell into social factors from both countries. The UK respondents perceived as anti-social in its activities in their attitudes, they believed that advertising tended to confuse people with bewildering choices, persuade people to buy unwanted goods, and make people a nation of conformists. Moreover, UK young adults felt that advertising made people materialistic. On the other hand, there were 5 loading social beliefs in Chinese's social factors, which was near perfect as original Larkin structure. Chinese participants had optimistic attitudes towards social consequences in advertising. Factor analysis also indicated that Chinese young adults had more consumer manipulation in their attitudes, such as "most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer" and "most advertising is silly and ridiculous".

The average mean score further confirmed that Chinese respondents held more positive attitudes towards social concerns, however, they tended to manoeuvre their own attitudes (see Table 6.17, China mean = 3.55 and UK = 2.66). Independent *t*-test (see Table 6.18 and 6.19) indicated that there was significant differences between males and females in China ($t = -3.42$; $p = .001$). The findings showed that female respondents in China had more optimistic attitudes towards social consequences than males did. There were no significant differences by gender in the UK ($t = -1.71$; $p = .08$).

Ethics Concerns among UK and Chinese Young Adults

Although two ethics beliefs were perfect and fell together as Larkin's original ethics scale in both countries (see Tables 6.12 and 6.13), but there were extra items (SOC7, SOC3, SOC4 and REG1) loaded into this solution. In the UK, young adults perceived advertising as consumer manipulation in its activities in ethics concerns, such as "advertising is false and misleading" and "most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer". Moreover, factor analysis indicated that UK respondents were identified as anti-advertising in

their attitudes, they tended to agree that advertising was false, misleading, exaggerated, and there was too much advertising. Nevertheless, UK young adults had mixed feelings about advertising as they slightly disagreed that “advertising is silly and ridiculous”. While young adults in China disagreed with the assertion that “advertising is false and misleading”, they felt that “advertising is too much exaggeration”. Only one extract belief SOC7 was loaded into Chinese’s ethics belief factors, which resulted in a near perfect loading solution in Chinese responses than UK did according to the structure of the Larkin scale.

The results from mean scores showed that UK respondents were strongly concerned about ethics issues, they tended to manipulate their attitudes (mean = 2.77; see Table 6.17). Chinese respondents had almost neutral attitudes towards ethics concerns (mean = 3.01; see Table 6.17). Further analysis by gender had a significant difference in the UK. The results of independent *t*-test indicated that male respondents in the UK had stronger feelings on ethics issues than females did ($t = -2.19$; $p = .02$; see Table 6.19). In China, there were no significant differences between genders ($t = -.81$; $p = .42$; see Table 6.15).

Regulation Concerns among UK and Chinese Young Adults

All regulation beliefs of advertising fell heavily into regulation factors in China responses, which accounted for 16 percent of variance. Only two regulation effects were loaded on the regulation factor in the UK, which accounted for 10 percent of variance. Factor analysis revealed that Chinese respondents were very concerned about regulation on advertising, they strongly needed the government to increase regulation of advertising to control negative effects on children, quantity of advertising and dangerous advertising, and so on.

Table 6.17 indicated that both countries had similar results of mean scores in terms of regulation concerns, indicating they are slightly agreed on the

subject of regulation. Inspection of the statistics of independent *t*-test in Table 6.18 and 6.19 showed that there were significant differences between genders in both countries. Chinese females had stronger feelings concerning regulation on advertising than males did ($t = 1.90$; $p = .057$). Similar results were found in the UK, female respondents were much more concerned about regulation than males were ($t = 1.95$; $p = .052$).

6.5.6 Section Summary

In this section hypothesis H4 was tested in a cross-cultural setting by using the Larkin scale structure to measure attitudes towards advertising in general. The tests were carried out by factor analysis, mean tests and independent *t*-test measuring the Larkin scale instrument. The tests resulted in rejection of the hypothesis H4 of no difference in perceived attitudes towards advertising in general as reflected in the 20 items of attitudinal statements between the UK and Chinese young adults.

To sum up, factor analysis indicated that Chinese respondents had a closer to original Larkin proposal loading solution than UK participants did. As can be seen from Table 6.15 and 6.16, except economic beliefs loading, most of beliefs loaded as expected according to the Larkin scale structure. In contrast, UK respondents had a near perfect loading on the subject of economic belief factors. The findings from factor analysis suggested the Larkin scale was not applicable to the cross-cultural equivalence measure unless the belief items can be re-identified. Especially, subjects in this study came from diverse cultural backgrounds, and they judged those belief themes with different views. Hypothesis H4 was, therefore, rejected. In addition, mean scores test and Independent *t*-test based on the new factor categories (see Table 6.17, 6.18 and 6.19) were applied to assess significant differences between the UK and China.

6.6 Chapter Conclusion

In this chapter empirical data analyses were reported in detail with regard to the key research issues of cultural values, emotional appeals in advertising and attitudes towards advertising in general. An exploration of general information about advertising exposure in the UK and China from the section one of questionnaire was also examined. In addition, the assessments of reliability and validity for the questionnaire survey on the subject of emotional responses and attitudes towards advertising in general were verified.

Overall, the findings from the present research have made an important contribution to the body of knowledge in cross-cultural research in the area of international advertising. The result of examination of the measurement instrument of Larkin's attitudinal scale has provided evidence to support the warning that using a measure instrument generated in one culture for research in another culture can lead to biased results if the instrument is not tested for its cross-cultural equivalence. As this chapter has revealed, the original Larkin's attitudinal scale (1980) generated in the American culture was not applicable to the UK and Chinese cultures. Statistical analysis by exploratory factor analysis assisted in generating a respecified scale from within each of the original measurement instruments in order to meet construct equivalence in a cross-cultural setting.

The testing of the hypotheses provided empirical evidence that carries important implications for cross-cultural equivalence of the measure instruments and the key issues under study. The comparative analyses revealed differences as well as similarities between the UK and Chinese young adults regarding the exploration of general information about advertising exposure, cultural values, emotional appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general. To give an overview of the results, the

hypotheses and the decisions on the test results are summarised in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20 Summary of the Hypothesis Tests

Key Issue	Hypothesis	Test	Decision
Cultural Values	H1 Chinese magazine advertisements tend to use more emotional values than UK magazine advertisements.	Chi-square	Rejected
Cultural Values	H2 Chinese magazine advertisements tend to use more traditional cultural values than UK magazine advertisements.	Chi-square	Rejected
Advertising Appeals	H3 UK and Chinese young adults tend to experience similar positive emotions when exposed to emotional appeals advertising.	Paired-Sample t test	Supported
Attitudes Towards Advertising in General	H4 There is no difference in perceived attitudes towards advertising in general as reflected in the twenty items of attitudinal statements between the UK and Chinese young adults	Factor Analysis	Rejected

The findings from an exploration of the general information about advertising exposure in the UK and China have provided important information for the understanding of the viewpoints of UK and Chinese young adults. Data analyses have indicated that both countries' young adults have optimistic attitudes towards advertising, although there is too much advertising today. They have agreed that advertising is believable, helpful, useful and relevant to their daily life. They enjoy reading advertising and treat them as a tool for gaining new product information.

The results from the cultural values give valuable insights into the style of advertising in each country. Especially, the evidence shows that Chinese advertising is basically towards international. The findings also indicate that Chinese advertising has tended to use more rational cultural values combined with traditional and modern cultures. The typical traditional and Eastern cultural values only appear sparingly throughout this study in Chinese advertising. In addition, the emphasis on personal appearance and

feelings reconfirm the importance of the self-centred individual caused by China's "one-child" policy (see Section 1.4). The empirical findings of emotional appeals in advertising have provided an important contribution to the evidence in support of the proposition that those young adults share more homogeneous needs and wants.

The tests resulted in support of the hypothesis that UK and Chinese young adults tend to experience similar positive basic emotions when exposed to emotional appeals advertising. The findings from the analysis have provided empirical evidence that not only supports the proposition that both countries' young adults tend to have similar reactions towards emotional appeals advertising in the field of international advertising, but also points to the significance of the context specificity of positive basic emotions. Under the strategic consideration that capitalising on consumers' homogeneous responses, emotional appeals supporting basic positive emotions are more appropriate than negative emotions. It, however, suggests that the current findings regarding the relative effects of advertising on consumer behaviour is needed to be replicated in future study, such as, colours, models, product, consumer preference and advertising design, and so on.

In rejecting hypothesis H4, the findings indicate that Larkin's scale was not applicable for cross-cultural equivalence measurement and is also culturally bounded. Further analysis by *t*-test identifies that Chinese young adults have more positive attitudes towards economic beliefs, while UK young adults are more concerned with economic beliefs in advertising based on factor analysis. In social and ethics consequences, factor analysis indicates that both countries' young adults have similar factor loadings. Especially, the Chinese's ethics belief factors resulted in near perfect loading solution. The results reveal that UK respondents are anti-social and anti-advertising in their attitudes, while Chinese participants have optimistic attitudes towards social beliefs in advertising. Both countries' young adults have very positive

attitudes towards regulation in advertising. Female respondents, particularly, are much more concerned about regulation in advertising.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This thesis examined the effect of advertising on consumer responses between the UK and Chinese youth markets. The research project proposed a cross-cultural comparative approach within which three key concepts were examined in the context of international advertising:

- 1) cultural values;
- 2) advertising appeals;
- 3) attitudes towards advertising in general.

This research will be of benefit to academics and practitioners by offering improved insights into their decisions on promotional strategies in international advertising environments and shed some light onto the relative effectiveness of advertising appeals in international advertising messages. The study findings also enhance the existing knowledge of academics and practitioners with respect to the Chinese new-generation market as well as the UK young adult market. The project, therefore, has achieved the following specific research objectives which were introduced in the first chapter:

1. To determine the dominant cultural values that are manifest in Chinese magazine advertisements.
2. To determine the dominant cultural values that are manifest in UK magazine advertisements.

3. To examine the important similarities and/or differences in cultural values reflected in UK and Chinese magazine advertisements.
4. To identify how different cultural values influenced advertising messages in terms of emotional appeals in consumer advertising between the UK and Chinese cultures
5. To analyse the perceptions of underlying beliefs that account for similarities and/or differences in attitudes towards advertising in general between the UK and Chinese young adults.

In Chapter 2, the main streams of the received theories of cross-cultural, consumer behaviour and advertising in the UK and China markets were reviewed. In the light of these theories as well as responding to the criticisms in the literature, a research framework was proposed focusing on youth markets, which incorporated the concepts of the cultural values between UK and Chinese advertising, advertising appeals, and attitudes towards advertising in general between the UK and Chinese youth markets.

Chapter 3 introduced the general bases of hypothesis generation and discussed the development of instruments for each key concept. Chapter 4 introduced the methodologies used in this study together with discussions on the justification of the choice of certain analytical techniques. Appropriate research design was based on a cross-cultural equivalence methodology for testing the hypotheses. In particular, Chapter 5 presented the procedure of advertising content analysis for testing the hypotheses of cultural values.

In Chapter 6, empirical data analyses were reported in detail with regard to the key research concepts of the cultural values, advertising appeals, and attitudes towards advertising in general in the context of international advertising. The test of validity provided empirical evidence that supported important implications for cross-cultural equivalence of the measurement

instrument in this study. The comparative analyses revealed similarities as well as differences between UK and Chinese advertising, and both countries' youth markets.

In the following sections, some conclusions are drawn in the light of the main contributions of this study, research limitations and future research directions.

7.2 Main Summaries and Contributions

Comparison of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 of this thesis; and the research findings reveal that Chinese advertising style and its advertising industry have been affected by both the change in Chinese cultural values as well as the political and economic systems since 1949. Moreover, the UK withdrawal from Hong Kong has stimulated a new environment in China, in particular, for the potential Chinese new-generation who were born under the "one-child" policy since 1979. In addition, rapidly improved economic developments have boosted China's international and global business activities, followed by increasing new opportunities for advertising. Mass communication media have been fast growing in China ever since. Particularly, the phenomenal growth recently in Chinese consumer markets is mirrored by the dramatic development in the advertising industry. There were 48,000 advertising agencies in China as of the beginning of 1996, an increase of 12 percent from the previous year (Asia Advertising and Marketing, 1997). Nevertheless, the threat of growing competition from foreign multinational corporations, knowledge and identification of culturally related differences in consumer behaviour are of critical concern for advertisers and marketers. It is crucial for international practitioners to find a better way to cut through the competition and reach target markets. However, the style of advertising and advertising strategies may be subject to the influence of consumer culture to a greater extent than other elements of

the promotional mix. It is, therefore, important to identify the key elements on the cross-cultural consumer similarities and/or differences in the context of international advertising. In contrast to the Chinese new-generation, UK young adults are growing in a modern and high technology society. They are likely to be more exposed to better information via mass media. The comparisons between the two countries, therefore, have provided maximum cultural contrast to highlight their similarities and/or differences.

The enormous body of research on advertisement effectiveness has often been related to TV advertising, but magazines have also played a very important role as media for advertisers and marketers. Magazines are especially useful promotional media reaching a broader geographic area in China (see Section 2.6 for more details). This study, therefore, focused on magazine advertisements due to the importance of magazines in Chinese society.

As there was a lack of advertising information on Chinese new-generations, the study first explored the general information of advertising from the perspective of UK and Chinese young adults, followed by examining the three key concepts (cultural values, advertising appeals, and attitudes towards advertising in general) as the crucial influences on international advertising and promotional strategies. These three key concepts were tested via advertising content analysis and a consumer questionnaire survey based on four hypotheses, the results are summarised in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Summary of the Hypothesis Tests

Key Issue	Hypothesis	Test	Decision
Cultural Values	H1: Chinese magazine advertisements tend to use more emotional values than UK magazine advertisements.	Chi-square	Rejected
Cultural Values	H2: Chinese Magazine advertisements tend to use more traditional cultural values than UK magazine advertisements.	Chi-square	Rejected
Advertising Appeals	H3: UK and Chinese young adults tend to experience similar positive emotions when exposed to emotional appeals advertising.	Paired-Sample t-test	Supported
Attitudes Towards Advertising in General	H4: There is no difference in perceived attitudes towards advertising in general as reflected in the twenty items of attitudinal statements between the UK and Chinese young adults	Factor Analysis	Rejected

In the light of the research findings, the main contributions are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, the present study has synthesised the issues in cross-cultural consumer behaviour and advertising literature of the importance of cultural value dimensions in the context of international advertising, and has used an empirical investigation into the most important issues in UK and Chinese youth markets.

Secondly, the exposure of the general information of advertising in UK and Chinese young adults has added to the existing knowledge for academics and practitioners. Overall, the findings have revealed that the Chinese new-generation spend more reading time on magazines, although UK young adults are taking advantage of a variety of magazines available in the UK. The results also have indicated that both countries' young adults spend a considerable amount of time on absorbing new product information from various magazines. These finding supports the later tests of hypotheses on

magazine advertisements are more meaningful. The statistics have indicated that gender effects on time spent on reading magazines, revealed that both countries' young adults have different lifestyles. Especially, during the academic term in both countries, the different living styles among those young adults substantially affected respondents' exposure to the different media. The findings have ranked TV as the most favourable media channel to obtain product information in both countries. UK young adults, however, choose the "other people/friends" as the second information channel, while the Chinese new-generation rely on both of the "other people/friends" and "observing at the market" channels. The results have suggested that "word of mouth" still plays a certain degree of importance in both youth markets. In particular, to a Chinese consumer, any ambiguous situation is viewed as threatening and must be avoided. Chinese people like to gather as much information as possible before revealing their thoughts to avoid losing face (Arias, 1998; Bradley, 1991; Buttery and Leung, 1998; Cateora *et al.*, 2000; Jeannet and Hennessey, 2001). Overall, the findings have revealed that magazines do not rank as the most favourable media channel among both countries' youth markets. However, the importance of its role in the mass media should not be ignored, particularly with such a huge geographic area as in China. The research has indicated that visual stimuli are the top reason for choosing TV as the most favourable type of advertising among all respondents. However, UK young adults are particularly attracted by impressions of sex and humour appeals in advertising, while these two kinds of appeals are either banned by Chinese authorities (sex appeals) or less developed (humour appeals) in China. With the growth of contacting the Western mass media, the above two appeals are unlikely to be avoided in the future marketing promotional strategy.

Although both countries' young adults might use different media channels to obtain information, especially with diverse cultural backgrounds, the findings have revealed that most respondents, however, have optimistic attitudes towards magazine advertising. The results also have indicated that those

young adults appear to pay a lot of attention to product features and the attractive actors or models used in magazine advertisements. The evidence shows that lots of existing magazine advertisements use famous actors, models and pop idles in their advertising to attract young people. In addition, they view advertising as a function of product information delivery and help their decision-making. Particularly, the Chinese new-generation tends to treat magazine advertising as an entertainment tool. Nevertheless, according to the questionnaire survey on how desirable product information has been assessed in both countries, the findings have provided the evidence that the Chinese new-generation's lifestyles and living standards are improving. For example, the Chinese new-generation demanded more information about cars, fashion, computers, books, home interior and entertainment, especially information about education, caused by the Cultural Revolution. This has been further reconfirmed from advertising content analysis of Chinese advertisements. It was interesting to know that UK young adults tend to demand more health and medicine information (see Table 6.1 for more details).

Thirdly, advertising content analysis has provided valuable contributions on the two countries. The most dominant cultural values in China have changed over time. The result of advertising content analysis indicated that “knowledge”, “beauty” and “economy” are the top three values occurring in Chinese magazine advertising in the present research. The emphasis on a value-for-money purchase and product performance has indicated that Chinese magazine advertising has been very practical and rational. It has been proved from this research that China's magazine advertising place much less emphasis on “modernity”, “technology”, “family”, and “tradition” values which have been heavily used in the past two decades. It is worth noting especially that the typical Eastern traditional cultural values appears less frequently from the present study. The focus on “beauty” and “social status” values have put emphasis on personal appearance and feelings which reconfirm the importance of the self-centred individual caused by the

“one-child” policy in China. The set of dominant cultural values manifest in Chinese magazine advertising has also indicated that advertising tend to combine with mixed cultures, in particular to utilise more modern and Western cultures.

In contrast, the top three dominant cultural values in the UK magazine advertising focused on “enjoyment”, “effectiveness” and “quality”. These findings have suggested that both the UK and Chinese magazine advertising are very practical and rational in their approaches, while UK magazine advertising appears to utilise purely Western and modern-oriented cultures. With such a contrast, the findings revealed that UK magazine advertising tends to expose a more Western cultural approach, which has been found less in similar language and culture settings, such as the US (see Section 2.8.1.1).

A rapid change to a market-driven economy has resulted in the growth of the advertising industry in China towards a more sophisticated approach than before. The findings have revealed that Chinese magazine advertising has interaction cultural values, which is basically moving towards an international advertising setting. Nevertheless, UK magazine advertising has reflected its low-context culture which tends towards rational cultural values with practical appeals. The results of advertising content analysis have provided a valuable pointer for international practitioners to understand each other’s approaches to adopt promotional strategies in international advertising environments. Furthermore, the difference in cultural values in the context of international advertising has provided important empirical evidence for further research on the issue of cultural values in both countries’ youth markets. For example, it might explore how the Chinese new-generation evaluates overseas advertising.

Fourthly, given the complexity of the diverse cultural values found in both countries, the analyses of the emotional advertising appeals have provided

evidence in support of the young adults in different cultural backgrounds share more in common than other age groups. As products become more homogeneous, the emotional attributes of a brand becomes essential for differentiation, it has been demonstrated that emotional appeals supporting basic positive emotions are more appropriate than negative emotions. Practitioners are, therefore, advised to employ emotional appeals supporting with the basic positive emotions, such as “happy”, “pleasant”, “interested” and “surprised”, in accordance with their international advertising objective and strategies in order to maximise advertising effectiveness. The characteristics identified in the analyses also provide valuable data for more sophisticated investigations of the relative effects of advertising on consumer behaviour in the future.

Fifthly, the present study evaluated cross-cultural applicability of a measurement instrument adapted from Larkin’s attitudinal scale in a UK and Chinese cultural context. It was found that the original scale generated in the American culture was not applicable to the UK and Chinese cultures. The findings have provided new empirical evidence to emphasise the danger that using a measurement instrument generated in one culture for research in another culture can lead to bias results if the instrument is not assessed for its cross-cultural equivalence. In addition, exploratory factor analysis has assisted in generating a set of measurement scale from the original measurement instrument. The new four factors identified provided similar attitudinal themes in each factor, but they appear to have different perceptions and dimensions in each country. These findings also provide some new insights which call for further testing attitudinal belief themes in each country in order to reposition them into a suitable effect area. For example, attitudinal beliefs could be tested in each country to characterise those beliefs into the appropriate position for in the economic effect of advertising.

Sixthly, the changes of economic reforms and political philosophy, particularly in China, have provided more practical concerns of advertising. The analyses of attitudes towards advertising in general have revealed that the Chinese new-generation has more positive attitudes towards the economic impact of advertising than UK young adults. The findings have provided evidence that the Chinese new-generation have strong confidence in their decision-making and are not easily affected by advertising; which is in contrast to previous findings that Chinese managers perceived advertising would make consumers buy things they do not need. Given the optimistic attitudes towards advertising among the Chinese new-generation, the UK young adults, however, strongly endorsed the effects of advertising impact on social and regulation beliefs. It suggests that practitioners should exercise social responsibility more cautiously. Especially, the implication of China's join to the WTO is bringing her to an era of new regulatory environment. Further research using a more sophisticated attitudinal measure is needed.

Overall, these findings within the present research have contributed to the body of knowledge in cross-cultural research in the context of international advertising. The findings and their implications have provided valuable information for advancing theories in international advertising and improving both academics' and practitioners' knowledge about each other and the related key issues underlying the success of cross-cultural advertising in youth markets.

7.3 Limitations

Several limitations of this research should be taken into consideration in evaluating the results. First, a convenience sample of university students was used in this study which limited the generalisability of the findings. Past

studies found that using a student population or general public had no substantial differences (Pollay and Mittal, 1993; Ramaprasad and Thurwanger, 1998). However, a student sample may be said to lack complete representatives of the population.

Another limitation of this study is to gain access to the public in China due to time and financial constraints, and political limitations preventing the researches from further investigating major cities, such as Beijing. The lack of Chinese marketing communications information in the UK also affected data collection effectively and efficiently, especially as this individual research is without financial support. In spite of this limitation, this study contributes to our understanding of cross-cultural consumer perceptions and attitudes towards advertising.

7.4 Future Research

With this research framework, the present study identified cultural values, advertising appeals and attitudes towards advertising in general as the key concepts underlying the relationships between the UK and Chinese youth markets. Given the large amount of work needed to carry out an overall examination of these concepts, the present research was limited to examining the properties of these concepts with each concept empirically investigated in isolation.

On the basis of the findings from this study, further research is needed to replicate as well as extend the analyses of each key concept in greater depth. For example, the key factor of cultural values should be cross-examined in terms of overseas advertising. The investigation of emotional advertising appeals in this research was focused on each country's own advertisements, since this study has considered the difficulties of translation

of the two countries' advertisements. It would be particularly interesting and pertinent to investigate and experiment with reflection on foreign advertisements in the light of the Chinese new-generation results. Further research also needs to be undertaken on additional response to advertising messages. For example, if the two countries' young adults explore the same global advertisements, will those young adults give more homogenous responses? In addition, it is necessary to replicate the current findings from the various emotional appeals along the basic continuum. For example, only eight emotions were generated and examined in this study. It is not clear whether they can be used to capitalise on homogeneous responses among consumers.

Undoubtedly, China is a large and important market with 1.3 billion consumers, and it has long been viewed as the last great treasure in the media world. Today, in compliance with the WTO rules, China is forced to open up her markets, not only in media but also its related industries. Especially, the leading media groups around the world have been seeking alliances for entering the Chinese market more efficiently. As a result, both market and technological factors have driven China to regulatory and policy reforms with media groups emerging and the strategic conglomerates the development trend. Especially, Internet technology increasingly links people around the world, future studies which apply social and economic indicators and expand the scope of geographical coverage will shed light on these vital issues of measuring cross-cultural perceptions and attitudes about advertising.

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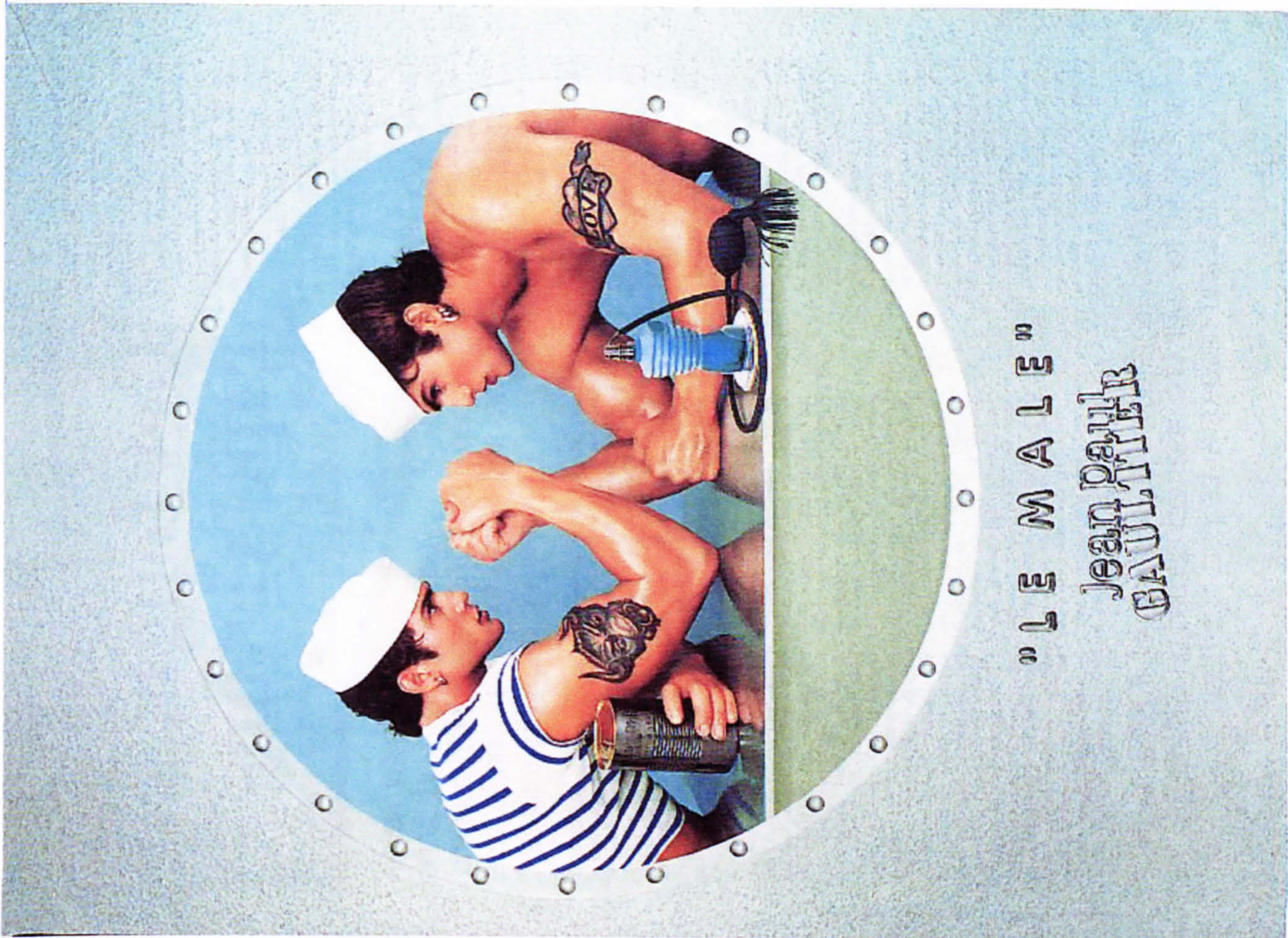
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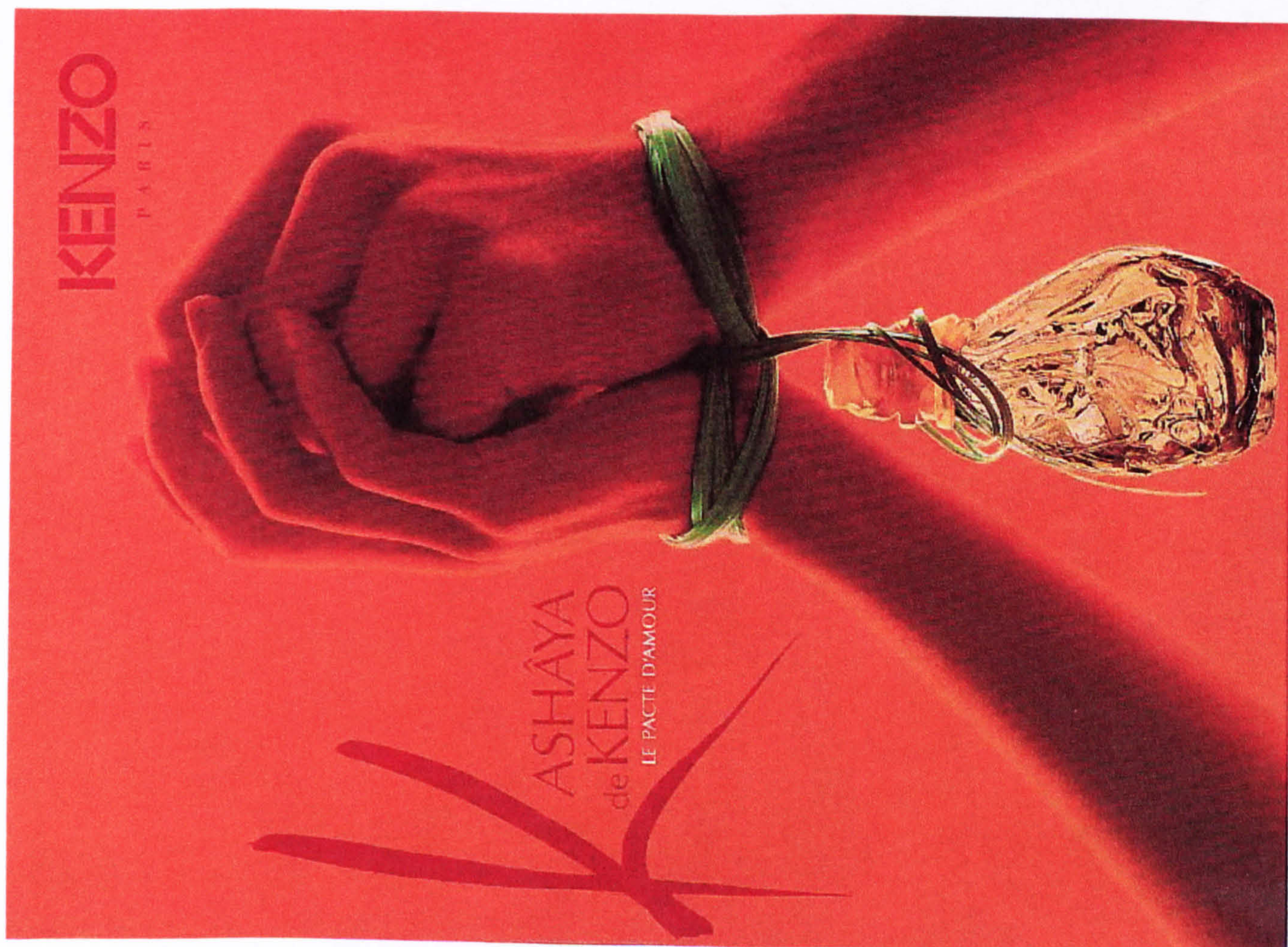
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- De Beers 集团, 钻石的切割和抛光, 钻石的镶嵌和零售, 钻石的切割和抛光, 钻石的镶嵌和零售。

Ad A

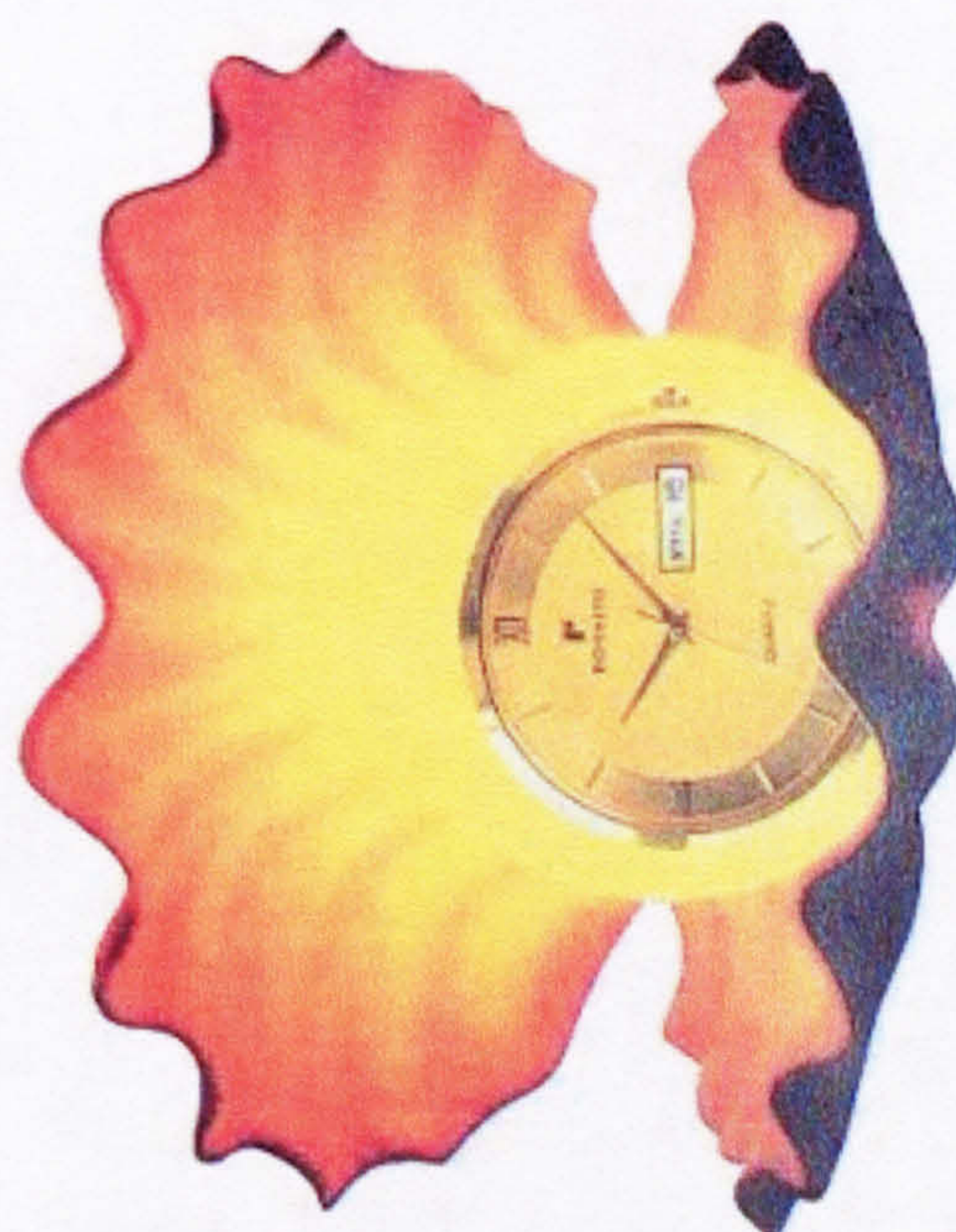


Ad D



Ad C

rossini
罗西尼防水石英表
精確精工 準確無比
Rossini Watch Co., Ltd.
Kowloon, Hong Kong
Tel: (852) 2388 8888
Fax: (852) 2388 8888



Ad F

願 庄 比 夫 洁 面 泡 沫 回 复 自 然 清 爽

遠 離 都 市 塵 埃 與 喧 囂
回 復 自 然 清 爽



Ad E

比 夫 洁 面 泡 沫 是 一 款 專 為 女 性 研 究 而 設 計 的 潔 面 泡 沫， 含 有 最 佳 的 中 性 皂 基 及 潤 膚 成 分， 能 滋 潤 皮 膚， 不 會 中 斷 皮 膚 的 自 然 程 序， 亦 能 清 潔 了 面 部 的 污 垢 及 油 脂， 使 你 清 爽 自 然， 回 復 自 然 清 爽。

比 夫 洁 面 泡 沫 的 特 點 有 以 下 幾 點：

- 潔 面 泡 沫 含 有 潤 膚 成 分， 能 滋 潤 皮 膚， 不 會 中 斷 皮 膚 的 自 然 程 序。
- 比 夫 洁 面 泡 沫 含 有 中 性 皂 基， 能 清 潔 面 部 的 污 垢 及 油 脂， 使 你 清 爽 自 然。
- 比 夫 洁 面 泡 沫 含 有 潤 膚 成 分， 能 滋 潤 皮 膚， 不 會 中 斷 皮 膚 的 自 然 程 序。
- 比 夫 洁 面 泡 沫 含 有 潤 膚 成 分， 能 滋 潤 皮 膚， 不 會 中 斷 皮 膚 的 自 然 程 序。

ALAL 歐 莊
ALAL 歐 莊 有 限 公 司
ALAL 歐 莊 有 限 公 司

小时候，妈妈的手最温柔





放我的真心在你的手心

MAXAM 美加净护手霜  上海家化

ISSN 1001-4209 邮发代号 52-11 国内总发行：中国出版集团上海家化公司 每罐定价：¥4.90元（零售价每罐¥3.80元）
统一刊号：CN61-1064/JC



Ad G



YUE-SAI 羽西

羽西漂亮的选择

漂亮女人的秘诀？
做最漂亮的选择！
每瓶羽西彩妆都蕴藏着美丽和
的惊喜、激情、浪漫和感动。
羽西的彩妆人懂得红妆的奥妙，
懂得、衬发和肤色，让妆容
我们看上是那么动人。
羽西彩妆的精髓，在于它
持久和耐穿，
美的选择。

羽西彩妆，
漂亮的选择，口红系列
是为亚洲女性设计的。



Ad H

Appendix 3 The Questionnaire in English

Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam

This survey is being conducted as part of a University study of consumer behaviour and advertising. We would like to ask you some questions about your reaction on advertising.

This study is divided into three sections. The first section requests basic information about advertising. The second section requests information about your attitude toward advertising. Both are contained here. The last section is an experimental test about reaction/feeling on emotional appeals in advertising and will be conducted separately.

Thank you very much for your support and help.

Yours Faithfully,

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Section 1 Basic Information

Please complete the questionnaire boldly like this [–] or fill in the blank as appropriate.

1a. Are you: Male ☐ Female ☐

1b. What is your current age? 18-24 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-40 ☐

2. Your average weekly hours spent on reading magazines? (Please mark one)

15 min or less ☐ 16-30 min ☐ 31-60 min ☐
More than 1-2 hours ☐ More than 2-3 hours ☐ More than 4 hours ☐ Never ☐

3a. How often do you watch TV commercials/ read newspaper and magazine advertisements/listen to radio advertisements? (Please mark one each item)

	Daily	4-5 times Per week	2-3 times per week	Once a week	Never
TV commercials	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Newspaper advertisements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Magazine advertisements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Radio advertisements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3b. In the case of magazine advertisements, if you ticked 'once a week' or 'never', please tick the main reason for your response? (Please mark one)

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Advertisements are of little use to me | <input type="checkbox"/> | Low quality of the advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lack of time | <input type="checkbox"/> | Magazine not available | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| No interest in magazine | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

4. What is the main channel through which you obtain product information? (Please mark one)

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Other people/friends | <input type="checkbox"/> | Observing at the market | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Newspaper advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> | Magazine advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Radio advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> | TV commercials | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Outdoor Billboards | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

5a. Which of the following advertisements do you like most?

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Newspaper advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> | Magazine advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Radio advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> | TV advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Billboard advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

5b. Describe briefly your reason for choosing the advertisement type you most liked in the question 5a?

6. What do you usually do when you read advertisements in magazines? (Please mark one)

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| Skip all the advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Choose those advertisements that interest me to read | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Choose those advertisements that I particularly need it for information | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Quickly view the picture/title of advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Read all the advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> |

7. What information do you pay more attention to when reading magazine advertisements? (Please mark two)

- | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Addresses of manufacturers or stores | <input type="checkbox"/> | Product features | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The artistic appearances of the products | <input type="checkbox"/> | Attractiveness of actors or models | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Slice-of-life stories in the advertisements | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

8. What is the main purpose of your reading magazine advertisements?

- | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Getting product information | <input type="checkbox"/> | Having no purpose | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Entertaining | <input type="checkbox"/> | This advertisement attracts me | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Others, please write | <input type="checkbox"/> | <hr/> | |

9. What do you think is the main reason that magazines print advertisements?
(Please mark two)

- To expand revenue in order to produce more quality magazines ☐
- To serve the readers by providing product information/service ☐
- To serve firms by helping to market merchandise ☐
- To make profits for the magazine itself ☐

10. In general, do you like or dislike advertising?

- Like a lot/some ☐
- Like a little ☐
- Neither like/dislike ☐
- Dislike a little ☐
- Dislike a lot/some ☐

11. What do you think of the number of advertisements in UK magazines?

- Too many ☐
- A few too many ☐
- About right ☐
- A little too few ☐
- Too few ☐

12. For each of the following advertising categories, please indicate whether more or less advertisements are needed. (Please mark one each item)

	More	Less
Advertisements for cosmetics, sanitation and hygiene products	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for medicine, nutrition and health	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for consumer electrical appliances, eg. fridge, microwave etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for household appliances, eg. detergent, shampoo, soap etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for daily necessities like watches, glasses, bikes etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for carpets, furniture and other interior decoration	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for food and drink	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for cars and motorcycles	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for computers, photocopiers and other office products	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for books, magazines, schools and education etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for audio/visual equipment, eg. Hi-fi, Walkman, TV,VCR etc	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for fashion information, eg. clothing, shoes, jewelry etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertisements for entertainment like music, movie, travel, cameras etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. How related are most advertised products in magazines to your daily life?

- Most of them are related to my daily life ☐
- Some of them are related ☐
- Almost none is related ☐

14. Do you think advertisements in magazine help you shopping?

- Helps very much ☐
- Helps somewhat ☐
- Does not help very much ☐
- Does not help at all ☐

15. Do you think advertisements in magazines are believable?

Very believable

Basically not believable

☐

Basically believable

Not believable at all

☐

16. What would you do when product information in advertisements contradicts your opinion about the product?

Trust my own knowledge

Ask for someone else’s opinion

☐

Observe in person, then decide

Trust advertisements

☐

Section 2 Attitudes Towards Advertising in General

In this section of the questionnaire you are asked how strongly you agree or disagree with statements of attitudes towards UK advertisements being surveyed. Please read the questions carefully. Some of the questions may seem similar, but they are all about slightly different aspects of your attitude towards advertising. Please mark one at the right of each statement to show how you respond to that statement.

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Advertising is essential to the prosperity of our economy.	()	()	()	()	()
2. Advertising helps raise our standard of living.	()	()	()	()	()
3. Advertising results in better products for the public.	()	()	()	()	()
4. In general advertising results in lower prices.	()	()	()	()	()
5. Advertising increases the costs of goods and services.	()	()	()	()	()
6. Advertising fosters monopolies.	()	()	()	()	()
7. Advertising is wasteful of money.	()	()	()	()	()
8. Advertising persuades people to buy things they really don't need.	()	()	()	()	()
9. Advertising just tends to confuse people with bewildering choices.	()	()	()	()	()
10. Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer.	()	()	()	()	()
11. Most advertising is silly and ridiculous.	()	()	()	()	()
12. Advertising affects children more than adults.	()	()	()	()	()
13. Advertising is making us a nation of conformists.	()	()	()	()	()
14. Advertising makes people materialistic.	()	()	()	()	()
15. In general, advertisements present true pictures of product advertising.	()	()	()	()	()
16. Too much of today's advertising is false and misleading.	()	()	()	()	()
17. There is too much exaggeration in advertising today.	()	()	()	()	()
18. There is too much advertising today.	()	()	()	()	()
19. Harmful/dangerous products should not be advertised.	()	()	()	()	()
20. There should be more government regulation of advertising.	()	()	()	()	()

Thank you for your help. Now please hand in this questionnaire before you leave.

Section 3 Emotional Advertising Appeals

Please identify the way you feel after seeing each advertisement by assigning the appropriate number (between 1 and 5) next to each word. This is five-point scale, where

- 1= does not make me feel at all...
2= makes me feel slightly...
3= makes me feel...
4= makes me feel strongly...
5= makes me feel very strongly...

For example: This Advertisement makes me feel... Happy: 2

Are you: Male ☐ Female ☐

What is your current age? 18-24 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-40 ☐

Ads No.: _____

This advertisement makes me feel...

Happy: _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

Fearful: _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

Pleasant: : : : : : : : :

Angry: _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

Interested: _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

Disgusted: _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

Sad: _____

Surprised: _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:

Thank you for your help. Now please hand in this questionnaire before you leave.

Appendix 4: The Questionnaire Survey in Chinese

意见征询表

亲爱的先生/女士

这份问卷调查系针对消费者行为及广告所作之学术研究之一部份，我们希望能请问有关你对广告所产生的一些反应。

这份问卷共分为三部份。第一部份需要你提供有关于你接触广告之基本信息；第二部份需要你提供你对广告所持之态度；第三部份为一实验性之测试，目的是为了了解你对广告之感性诉求的反应/感觉。

诚挚感谢你的支持与合作。

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第一部份 基本信息

1. 性别 男 ☐ 女 ☐

1a. 你目前年龄 18-24 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-40 ☐

2. 你平均每周花多少小时阅读杂志 (单选)

少于 15 分钟 ☐

16-30 分钟 ☐

31-60 分钟 ☐

超过 1-2 小时 ☐

超过 2-3 小时 ☐

超过 4 小时 ☐

从不阅读杂志 ☐

3a. 你观看电视广告/阅读报纸及杂志广告/收听收音机广告的频率: (请就下列每项单选)

	每天	每周 4-5 次	每周 2-3 次	每周 1 次	从不
电视广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
报纸广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
杂志广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
收音机广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3b. 就杂志广告而言，若你上一问题是选择「每周 1 次」或「从不」，请回答主要原因为下列何项 (请单选)

- ☐ a) 广告对我无帮助
- ☐ b) 广告品质太低
- ☐ c) 没时间
- ☐ d) 没杂志
- ☐ e) 对杂志没兴趣

4. 你从何管道取得商品信息?

- ☐ a) 其它人/朋友
- ☐ b) 市场上看到
- ☐ c) 报纸/杂志广告
- ☐ d) 收音机广告
- ☐ e) 电视广告
- ☐ g) 户外广告看板

5a. 你最喜欢下列那一类型之广告?

- ☐ a) 报纸/杂志广告
- ☐ b) 收音机广告
- ☐ c) 电视广告
- ☐ d) 户外广告看板

5b. 请就以上作答 (5a) 简要说明

6. 当你于杂志上看到广告时，请问你如何处理?

- ☐ a) 跳过不看
- ☐ b) 选择有兴趣的广告阅读
- ☐ c) 阅读所有的广告

7. 当阅读杂志内的广告时，你会较注意那些讯息 (请选择两项)?

- ☐ a) 制造商或商店之地址
- ☐ b) 产品特性
- ☐ c) 产品外观
- ☐ d) 演员或模特儿是否吸引人
- ☐ e) 广告内容中具生活性的故事

8. 你阅读杂志广告之主要目的?

- ☐ a) 取得产品信息
- ☐ b) 无目的
- ☐ c) 娱乐
- ☐ d) 此一广告吸引我
- ☐ e) 其它，请说明 _____

9. 你认为杂志刊登广告之主要原因? (请选择两项)

- ☐ a) 增加收入以提升杂志品质
- ☐ b) 提供产品信息以服务读者
- ☐ c) 提供业者产品促销之服务
- ☐ d) 杂志本身要获取利润

10. 基本上, 你喜欢或讨厌广告?

- ☐ a) 很喜欢/喜欢
- ☐ b) 有点喜欢
- ☐ c) 既不喜欢也不讨厌
- ☐ d) 有点讨厌
- ☐ e) 很讨厌/讨厌

11. 你觉得中文杂志内的广告数量?

- ☐ a) 太多
- ☐ b) 有点多
- ☐ c) 恰好
- ☐ d) 有点少
- ☐ e) 太少

12. 就以下各类商品之广告, 请回答是否该增加或减少? (请各选一项)

	增加	减少
a) 化妆品、卫生、生理用品之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) 药品、营养品及健康用品之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) 家电用品之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) 工业机械设备之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) 日常用品, 如手表、眼镜、脚踏车等之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f) 地毯、家具及其它室内装潢之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g) 食品及饮料之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h) 汽车、计算机、复印机及其它办公用品之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i) 书籍、报纸及杂志之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j) 展览及展示会之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
k) 关于时尚用品如服饰、鞋子、珠宝等广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
l) 关于娱乐如音乐、电影、旅游、照相机之广告	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. 最常被杂志刊登之广告商品和你日常生活中的关系?

- ☐ a) 大部份都和我日常生活有关
- ☐ b) 有些和我日常生活有关
- ☐ c) 大部份都和我日常生活无关

14. 你认为杂志广告对你的购物?

- ☐ a) 非常有帮助
- ☐ b) 有些帮助
- ☐ c) 不是很有帮助
- ☐ d) 毫无帮助

15. 当广告所传达之产品讯息和你对该商品之看法相反时，你会？

- ☐ a) 相信自己的认知
- ☐ b) 亲眼所见后，再决定
- ☐ c) 询问别人的意见
- ☐ d) 相信广告

第二部份 你对广告所持之态度

请表达你对以下 20 个有关于中文广告说法的同意程度，虽然有些说法可能相似，其目的是为测知你对广告所持态度之细微差异。请仔细阅读这些陈述，针对每一陈述，请圈选右侧之字母来表达你对该说法之同意程度。

	十分同意	有些同意	无意见	有些不同意	十分不同意
1.广告是促进我们经济繁荣之要素	A	B	C	D	E
2. 广告帮助我们提高生活水平.....	A	B	C	D	E
3. 广告可使大众得到较好之商品.....	A	B	C	D	E
4. 大致而言，广告可促使售价降低.....	A	B	C	D	E
5. 广告增加商品或服务之成本.....	A	B	C	D	E
6. 广告造成独占事业.....	A	B	C	D	E
7. 广告是浪费金钱.....	A	B	C	D	E
8. 广告说服人们购买其并不真正需要的东西.....	A	B	C	D	E
9. 广告多会以令人困惑的选择来混淆人们.....	A	B	C	D	E
10. 大部份广告是侮辱消费者的智商.....	A	B	C	D	E
11. 大部份广告是愚蠢且荒谬.....	A	B	C	D	E
12. 广告对小孩比对成人有影响力.....	A	B	C	D	E
13. 广告正使得我们成为顺民之国.....	A	B	C	D	E
14. 广告使得人们崇尚物质主义.....	A	B	C	D	E
15. 大致而言，广告真实表现其所宣传之商品.....	A	B	C	D	E
16. 当今大部份的广告是虚假且误导人的.....	A	B	C	D	E
17. 当今的广告太过夸张.....	A	B	C	D	E
18. 现今充斥太多广告.....	A	B	C	D	E
19. 不宜广告有害/危险的产品.....	A	B	C	D	E
20. 应该有更多的政府法令来管理广告.....	A	B	C	D	E

第三部份 感性广告测试

说明: 在本部份问券中, 我将向您展示一些广告。第一阶段, 请於下列形容词右侧, 以数字1-5来表示您看过每一广告之感觉。 1=该广告令我毫无感觉 → 5=该广告令我有很強的感觉。

例如：这支广告令我感觉...快乐的： 2

1=该广告令我毫无快乐的感觉
2=该广告令我有一点快乐的感觉
3=该广告令我感觉快乐的
4=该广告令我感觉很快快乐
5=该广告令我感觉非常快乐

广告号码: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____

这支广告令我感觉:

快乐的 _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____:

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Appendix 5 Coding Scheme and Coding Sheet of Content Analysis

Please code each advertisement by working independently. The coding frame including thirty-three cultural values as attachment. Please identify the two most dominant values in each advertisement by first examining the illustrations and headlines, then the key elements in the major captions and the main body copy. Please first write down advertisement number on each column, follow by coding two dominant values on each column.

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Appendix 6 Reliability of British's Emotional Scale, Leicester

Reliability Coefficients Alpha = .9116

N of Cases = 139 N of Items = 64

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
i1	101.6187	429.0637	.3875	.9100
i2	102.4460	441.0315	.1732	.9115
i3	101.5540	423.5387	.4790	.9091
i4	102.4820	439.0631	.3453	.9110
i5	100.9568	427.3459	.3530	.9104
i6	102.4748	441.8164	.1558	.9116
i7	102.4892	440.1937	.3413	.9112
i8	102.0504	429.2511	.4336	.9097
j1	101.4964	429.0344	.3063	.9109
j2	101.9568	428.5054	.4094	.9098
j3	101.5252	430.8164	.2640	.9113
j4	102.4317	437.8703	.3170	.9109
j5	100.7482	423.0303	.3862	.9102
j6	102.4388	440.0451	.1621	.9115
j7	102.4317	439.8413	.1958	.9114
j8	101.8417	421.8733	.5639	.9084
k1	101.7842	420.2140	.5337	.9085
k2	102.3525	432.6502	.4507	.9100
k3	101.5540	424.4083	.4732	.9092
k4	102.4532	438.5395	.3139	.9110
k5	101.4173	421.6362	.4231	.9097
k6	102.3525	434.3169	.4096	.9103
k7	102.3022	437.4008	.2220	.9112
k8	102.2158	430.3009	.4667	.9097
l1	101.6691	427.7158	.3289	.9107
l2	102.1295	430.2150	.3306	.9105
l3	101.8345	433.1246	.2417	.9113
l4	102.0935	430.9115	.2695	.9112
l5	101.3237	425.0466	.3327	.9109
l6	101.9137	430.2534	.2351	.9120
l7	102.2302	429.9756	.3491	.9103
l8	101.7122	428.5688	.3023	.9110
m1	101.8561	421.1241	.5193	.9087
m2	102.3237	432.8002	.4650	.9099
m3	101.6187	422.2956	.5308	.9087
m4	102.3237	433.7857	.3469	.9105
m5	101.2014	420.7128	.4606	.9093
m6	102.3597	437.8407	.2364	.9111
m7	102.3669	435.6543	.3529	.9106
m8	101.7842	422.0400	.5130	.9088
n1	100.8417	421.4385	.4302	.9096
n2	102.3381	432.2689	.4985	.9098
n3	101.4748	428.2222	.3379	.9105
n4	102.3885	434.1813	.4132	.9102
n5	101.0216	426.4416	.3655	.9103
n6	102.1942	430.9837	.3279	.9105
n7	102.3813	432.4550	.4127	.9101
n8	101.5683	425.1457	.4191	.9097
o1	100.7626	412.6316	.5861	.9077
o2	102.4101	434.4176	.3304	.9106
o3	101.1655	422.0087	.4351	.9096
o4	102.4317	440.2761	.1355	.9116
o5	100.8705	422.2005	.4308	.9096
o6	102.3453	434.9234	.2853	.9108
o7	102.3741	435.1344	.2848	.9108
o8	101.3525	417.2734	.5355	.9084
p1	101.4676	415.9174	.5370	.9084
p2	102.2950	436.9921	.1911	.9115
p3	101.5683	423.8993	.4828	.9091
p4	102.3022	436.5602	.2260	.9112
p5	101.4173	434.3029	.1997	.9118
p6	102.4245	439.4200	.2287	.9112
p7	102.3381	436.3559	.2313	.9112
p8	101.7842	426.1995	.4244	.9097

Appendix 6 Reliability of British's Emotional Scale, London

Reliability Coefficients Alpha = .8896

N of Cases = 124.0 N of Items = 64

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
i1	103.1210	388.3023	.4666	.8862
i2	103.8226	398.9927	.3429	.8881
i3	102.9516	392.8594	.3439	.8877
i4	103.8871	397.0603	.4775	.8874
i5	102.5887	396.1953	.2482	.8889
i6	103.8790	399.8470	.3421	.8883
i7	103.8710	398.0970	.4433	.8877
i8	103.4194	390.5056	.4615	.8865
j1	102.6855	388.0385	.3546	.8877
j2	103.3790	390.4649	.4028	.8870
j3	102.6613	391.9819	.2987	.8884
j4	103.9194	398.8390	.4967	.8877
j5	102.2339	393.9367	.2357	.8895
j6	103.9274	400.1329	.4236	.8881
j7	103.9355	399.8982	.4514	.8880
j8	103.2581	394.9247	.2542	.8889
k1	103.2661	391.7253	.3491	.8876
k2	103.8871	405.1579	.0853	.8897
k3	102.8548	383.6536	.5346	.8851
k4	103.8952	404.1271	.1878	.8893
k5	102.9435	394.1025	.2557	.8890
k6	103.8871	405.0766	.1032	.8896
k7	103.7742	398.5177	.3365	.8881
k8	103.5484	394.1846	.3340	.8878
l1	103.2419	393.4857	.2852	.8885
l2	103.6371	393.7778	.4072	.8872
l3	103.2581	394.8272	.3034	.8882
l4	103.5081	389.1788	.3789	.8873
l5	102.9597	400.1203	.1277	.8906
l6	103.3145	396.3312	.1825	.8903
l7	103.7016	397.1867	.2534	.8887
l8	103.0565	386.2813	.4506	.8863
m1	102.9677	382.9420	.5159	.8853
m2	103.8710	399.9507	.4648	.8880
m3	102.7016	390.4875	.3538	.8876
m4	103.8710	403.0564	.1965	.8892
m5	102.3306	395.9467	.1861	.8904
m6	103.8952	404.7938	.1501	.8895
m7	103.8548	401.2958	.2872	.8886
n8	103.2661	386.2457	.4984	.8857
n1	102.9435	388.4602	.3826	.8872
n2	103.7016	397.9997	.3045	.8882
n3	103.2339	392.0993	.3557	.8876
n4	103.6210	398.1072	.2185	.8891
n5	102.9032	397.9580	.1677	.8903
n6	103.3145	394.5913	.2548	.8890
n7	103.8871	402.1172	.2736	.8888
n8	102.9919	388.6260	.3554	.8876
o1	102.0887	385.8539	.3902	.8872
o2	103.9032	401.1288	.2893	.8886
o3	102.3306	386.2882	.4199	.8867
o4	103.8629	398.5583	.3328	.8881
o5	102.1048	387.3954	.3875	.8872
o6	103.8710	401.6255	.2221	.8890
o7	103.9274	400.0028	.4087	.8881
o8	102.5645	390.1828	.3151	.8883
p1	103.0161	394.3249	.2645	.8888
p2	103.7177	389.2124	.5303	.8858
p3	103.1048	394.9401	.3093	.8881
p4	103.6694	394.8410	.3491	.8877
p5	102.9516	395.9163	.2510	.8889
p6	103.7903	393.3703	.4607	.8868
p7	103.7419	392.2581	.4435	.8868
p8	103.2016	387.9834	.4445	.8864

Appendix 7 Reliability of Chinese's Emotional Scale, Xiamen

Reliability Coefficients Alpha = .8570

N of Cases = 142.0 N of Items = 64

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
A1	102.0352	294.9278	.2166	.8558
A2	102.7183	296.0903	.3384	.8550
A3	101.8732	292.4093	.2732	.8550
A4	102.7535	299.8041	.1588	.8566
A5	101.7324	296.9775	.0982	.8583
A6	102.5775	297.1393	.1744	.8563
A7	102.7887	299.7281	.1914	.8565
A8	102.6127	294.7354	.2970	.8549
B1	101.3239	285.1709	.4103	.8523
B2	102.7817	300.6541	.1078	.8569
B3	101.1831	289.2003	.2947	.8547
B4	102.7394	297.3288	.3131	.8554
B5	101.4366	287.2548	.3430	.8537
B6	102.6831	296.8563	.2298	.8557
B7	102.7746	299.2822	.2798	.8562
B8	102.6690	296.7195	.2893	.8554
C1	102.5141	299.3863	.0698	.8576
C2	101.9296	287.3283	.3413	.8538
C3	102.5141	300.1665	.0289	.8584
C4	102.3803	285.4998	.4294	.8521
C5	102.4930	299.2163	.0666	.8578
C6	101.5000	286.8901	.2724	.8558
C7	102.4930	288.3085	.4333	.8524
C8	101.3169	288.6010	.2241	.8572
D1	101.2746	281.3496	.4948	.8505
D2	102.7324	296.9633	.2687	.8555
D3	101.3380	287.8566	.3200	.8542
D4	102.7324	297.6867	.2231	.8559
D5	101.6197	282.5068	.4460	.8515
D6	102.6620	294.7360	.2870	.8550
D7	102.7746	298.9134	.2872	.8560
D8	102.6408	292.4162	.3549	.8540
E1	101.4718	277.7262	.5021	.8499
E2	102.6268	301.4980	-.0166	.8580
E3	101.4789	279.8400	.5021	.8501
E4	102.7042	298.6353	.1538	.8565
E5	101.3521	277.9461	.4532	.8511
E6	102.4577	299.5833	.0477	.8582
E7	102.7254	298.8106	.1559	.8565
E8	102.2606	289.7685	.2920	.8547
F1	102.0775	291.9159	.2388	.8557
F2	102.7606	300.8075	.0688	.8570
F3	102.0423	290.8776	.2713	.8551
F4	102.7606	300.2260	.1216	.8568
F5	101.1690	293.9996	.1328	.8588
F6	102.6690	299.5422	.0791	.8573
F7	102.7394	298.4494	.2026	.8561
F8	101.8310	280.5244	.4879	.8505
G1	100.8662	277.9891	.5034	.8499
G2	102.7958	301.2984	.0360	.8571
G3	100.7887	280.2955	.4557	.8511
G4	102.7817	301.0229	.0399	.8572
G5	100.9648	280.7576	.4879	.8505
G6	102.7606	301.1905	.0173	.8573
G7	102.6408	298.3736	.1679	.8564
G8	102.5634	295.4960	.2560	.8553
H1	101.2324	282.0378	.4343	.8517
H2	102.7183	297.1541	.2332	.8557
H3	101.3099	283.4778	.4019	.8524
H4	102.7746	299.3106	.1699	.8564
H5	101.6549	283.5893	.4219	.8520
H6	102.6761	298.8730	.1242	.8568
H7	102.7324	297.4172	.2597	.8557
H8	102.0352	287.1406	.3539	.8535

Appendix 7 Reliability of Chinese's Emotional Scale, Tainjin

Reliability Coefficients Alpha = .9069

N of Cases = 139.0 N of Items = 64

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
A1	105.2086	528.1083	.5401	.9033
A2	106.8201	556.5979	.3336	.9062
A3	105.0935	532.8245	.4748	.9041
A4	106.7986	557.0606	.2413	.9064
A5	105.4173	534.3898	.4897	.9040
A6	106.7770	554.4354	.3169	.9060
A7	106.7842	556.0980	.2774	.9062
A8	106.5540	546.5387	.4159	.9051
B1	105.4029	530.6336	.5539	.9033
B2	106.6763	552.1336	.3107	.9059
B3	105.5108	539.1502	.4134	.9049
B4	106.7338	553.3707	.3230	.9059
B5	105.6187	537.8753	.4223	.9048
B6	106.5612	547.5379	.3508	.9055
B7	106.7482	553.1028	.3471	.9058
B8	106.6331	549.4948	.3715	.9055
C1	106.5827	553.6217	.2313	.9064
C2	105.6115	534.1958	.4549	.9044
C3	106.5755	558.1591	.1116	.9072
C4	106.3381	535.7617	.5023	.9039
C5	106.6115	558.4712	.1106	.9072
C6	105.5683	540.8123	.3395	.9058
C7	106.5252	542.0338	.4797	.9044
C8	105.4173	538.2594	.3463	.9058
D1	105.5036	528.1793	.5231	.9035
D2	106.6691	550.6288	.4065	.9054
D3	105.5324	529.1058	.5069	.9037
D4	106.6835	549.2759	.3841	.9054
D5	105.3381	522.1095	.5960	.9025
D6	106.5252	548.7874	.3134	.9058
D7	106.5971	547.8220	.3724	.9054
D8	106.2950	539.9196	.4285	.9047
E1	105.8058	548.2736	.2162	.9072
E2	106.7626	555.6896	.3432	.9061
E3	105.6691	550.7303	.1761	.9076
E4	106.7482	559.8419	.0953	.9071
E5	105.0360	546.7306	.2032	.9078
E6	106.7770	562.3340	.0007	.9074
E7	106.7482	554.8564	.2730	.9062
E8	105.9784	541.9488	.3251	.9059
F1	105.0216	542.3981	.2979	.9063
F2	106.8345	562.0376	.0349	.9071
F3	104.9568	544.4039	.2859	.9063
F4	106.8417	562.9748	-.0452	.9073
F5	105.2014	538.9446	.3704	.9054
F6	106.8273	563.7091	-.0860	.9075
F7	106.6906	550.5340	.4009	.9054
F8	106.6187	549.9912	.3253	.9057
G1	105.3165	531.8556	.5090	.9037
G2	106.7482	557.2477	.2259	.9065
G3	105.5036	533.1214	.5167	.9037
G4	106.7266	555.6928	.2114	.9065
G5	105.5540	530.2054	.5256	.9035
G6	106.6691	557.5129	.1408	.9070
G7	106.7986	559.5099	.1462	.9068
G8	106.4604	547.9024	.3615	.9054
H1	106.6187	555.3101	.1901	.9067
H2	105.9209	526.4502	.5771	.9029
H3	106.6259	553.3083	.2604	.9062
H4	106.1295	527.5048	.5840	.9029
H5	106.5252	554.3816	.1902	.9068
H6	105.5827	535.2594	.4082	.9050
H7	106.5180	539.0921	.5169	.9040
H8	105.9137	530.3113	.4996	.9038

Appendix 8 Reliability of British’s Attitudes Towards Advertising in General

Reliability Coefficients Alpha = .7561

N of Cases = 352.0 N of Items = 20

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
ECO1	52.5426	73.6734	.0221	.7653
ECO2	51.9006	72.3006	.1098	.7599
ECO3	51.9432	71.7859	.1134	.7613
ECO4	51.0313	71.8423	.0978	.7633
ECO5	52.2841	69.7937	.2290	.7530
ECO6	51.6222	67.7913	.3826	.7419
ECO7	50.8324	67.9291	.3304	.7454
SOC1	52.2188	67.3794	.3922	.7410
SOC2	51.7131	65.6525	.5012	.7328
SOC3	51.4773	65.9596	.4454	.7364
SOC4	51.4744	65.6860	.4378	.7367
SOC5	52.0540	67.4871	.3466	.7442
SOC6	51.5938	66.7889	.4584	.7367
SOC7	52.1165	65.4536	.4849	.7334
ETH1	51.3778	72.6688	.0837	.7617
ETH2	51.7642	68.3630	.3531	.7440
ETH3	52.1136	67.0925	.4547	.7373
REG1	52.0966	64.5832	.5209	.7301
REG2	52.4517	69.0860	.2197	.7550
REG3	52.1335	67.0790	.3765	.7418

Removed items of ECO1, EXO2, ECO3, ECO4 and ETH1

Reliability Coefficients Alpha = .8130

N of Cases = 354.0 N of Items = 15

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
ECO5	38.2147	62.6620	.2432	.8147
ECO6	37.5537	60.8484	.3896	.8046
ECO7	36.7599	60.8629	.3481	.8077
SOC1	38.1582	59.9409	.4372	.8014
SOC2	37.6525	58.5447	.5301	.7950
SOC3	37.4096	57.9876	.5246	.7950
SOC4	37.4068	58.7179	.4564	.8000
SOC5	37.9859	60.0536	.3892	.8049
SOC6	37.5226	60.0406	.4613	.8000
SOC7	38.0565	58.0025	.5361	.7942
ETH2	37.7034	60.7985	.4048	.8037
ETH3	38.0508	59.8331	.4929	.7982
REG1	38.0339	56.8770	.5929	.7898
REG2	38.3870	61.9603	.2346	.8174
REG3	38.0650	60.1402	.3873	.8050

Appendix 9 Reliability of Chinese's Attitudes Towards Advertising in General

Reliability Coefficients Alpha = .6291

N of Cases = 554.0 N of Items = 20

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
ECO1	57.2780	61.5754	.0710	.6342
ECO2	56.4819	61.9680	.0320	.6404
ECO3	56.4856	62.3045	.0209	.6406
ECO4	55.5325	63.2187	-.0265	.6448
ECO5	57.1390	58.0729	.2260	.6163
ECO6	55.9856	58.4193	.2532	.6130
ECO7	55.1733	61.6517	.0794	.6324
SOC1	56.0704	55.4543	.4127	.5917
SOC2	56.5433	55.5903	.4102	.5923
SOC3	55.6227	57.5084	.2957	.6074
SOC4	55.7310	56.7648	.3176	.6040
SOC5	57.0162	57.3722	.2793	.6091
SOC6	55.6552	58.0599	.2613	.6118
SOC7	56.0614	57.1319	.3116	.6052
ETH1	56.0235	63.5275	-.0446	.6466
ETH2	56.0451	57.6960	.2888	.6084
ETH3	56.9025	55.1550	.4447	.5880
REG1	57.2419	56.5960	.3532	.6000
REG2	57.1859	58.2529	.1978	.6205
REG3	57.4783	59.1035	.2031	.6191

Removed Items of ECO3, ECO4 and ETH1

Reliability Coefficients Alpha = .6823

N of Cases = 555.0 N of Items = 17

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
ECO1	47.2757	61.0953	.0073	.6968
ECO2	46.4811	62.1490	-.0629	.7067
ECO5	47.1315	56.2480	.2447	.6728
ECO6	45.9802	56.9436	.2529	.6714
ECO7	45.1712	59.7270	.1057	.6859
SOC1	46.0649	53.4290	.4496	.6479
SOC2	46.5405	53.4582	.4541	.6476
SOC3	45.6162	55.6196	.3213	.6635
SOC4	45.7261	54.7046	.3536	.6593
SOC5	47.0126	55.6767	.2927	.6668
SOC6	45.6505	56.9859	.2370	.6732
SOC7	46.0595	55.4459	.3248	.6630
ETH2	46.0396	55.1789	.3543	.6597
ETH3	46.8991	52.7118	.5107	.6410
REG1	47.2360	54.4081	.3993	.6543
REG2	47.1802	56.5920	.2071	.6781
REG3	47.4703	56.9571	.2418	.6727

Appendix 9 Reliability of Chinese’s Attitudes Towards Advertising in General – Continued

Removed Items Of ECO1, ECO2, ECO3, ECO4 and ETH1

Reliability Coefficients **Alpha = .7286**

N of Cases = 558.0 N of Items = 15

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
ECO5	42.1738	56.2085	.2360	.7255
ECO6	41.0161	56.9028	.2436	.7234
ECO7	40.2115	58.9175	.1452	.7317
SOC1	41.1039	52.9299	.4681	.6996
SOC2	41.5735	53.0565	.4661	.7000
SOC3	40.6559	54.9047	.3530	.7123
SOC4	40.7652	53.8963	.3889	.7082
SOC5	42.0484	55.1987	.3088	.7171
SOC6	40.6864	57.0595	.2208	.7260
SOC7	41.1039	55.0233	.3375	.7139
ETH2	41.0789	54.3277	.3950	.7079
ETH3	41.9409	52.0916	.5386	.6923
REG1	42.2760	53.9093	.4189	.7053
REG2	42.2240	56.4219	.2056	.7298
REG3	42.5108	56.6597	.2483	.7232

Appendix 10 Selected Factor Analysis Outputs for the
Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, UK
(4 Factors)

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.347	28.978	28.978	4.347	28.978	28.978	2.371	15.804	15.804
2	1.311	8.739	37.717	1.311	8.739	37.717	2.354	15.695	31.499
3	1.247	8.311	46.028	1.247	8.311	46.028	1.767	11.782	43.282
4	1.130	7.537	53.565	1.130	7.537	53.565	1.542	10.283	53.565
5	1.066	7.106	60.670						
6	.864	5.761	66.431						
7	.805	5.369	71.801						
8	.687	4.581	76.382						
9	.657	4.380	80.762						
10	.607	4.049	84.811						
11	.536	3.572	88.383						
12	.490	3.265	91.648						
13	.473	3.156	94.804						
14	.428	2.853	97.657						
15	.351	2.343	100.000						

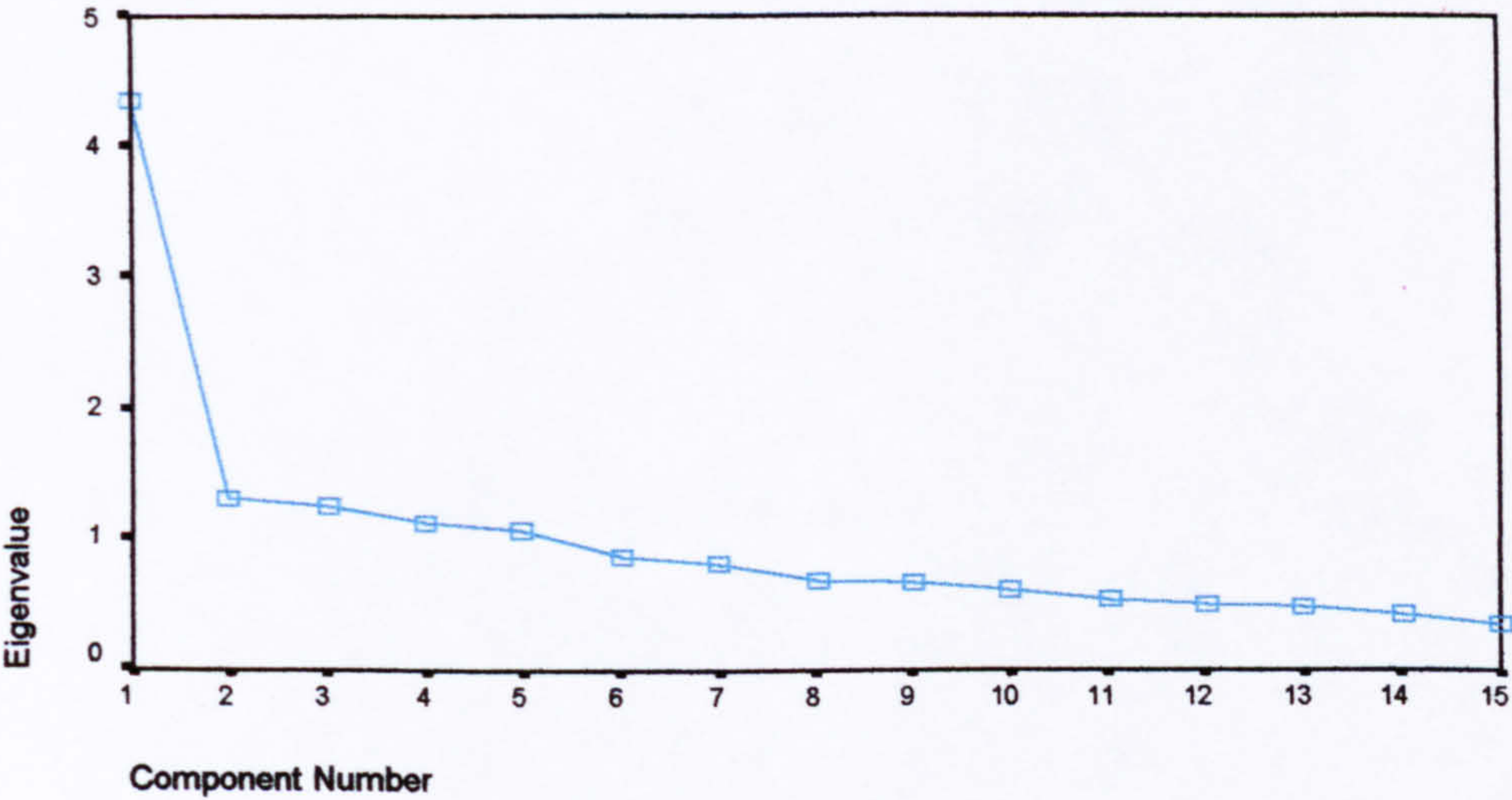
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

**Appendix 10 Selected Factor Analysis Outputs for the
Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, UK
(4 Factors)**

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.			.826
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1211.402	
	df	105	
	Sig.	.000	

Scree Plot



Rotated Component Matrix^a

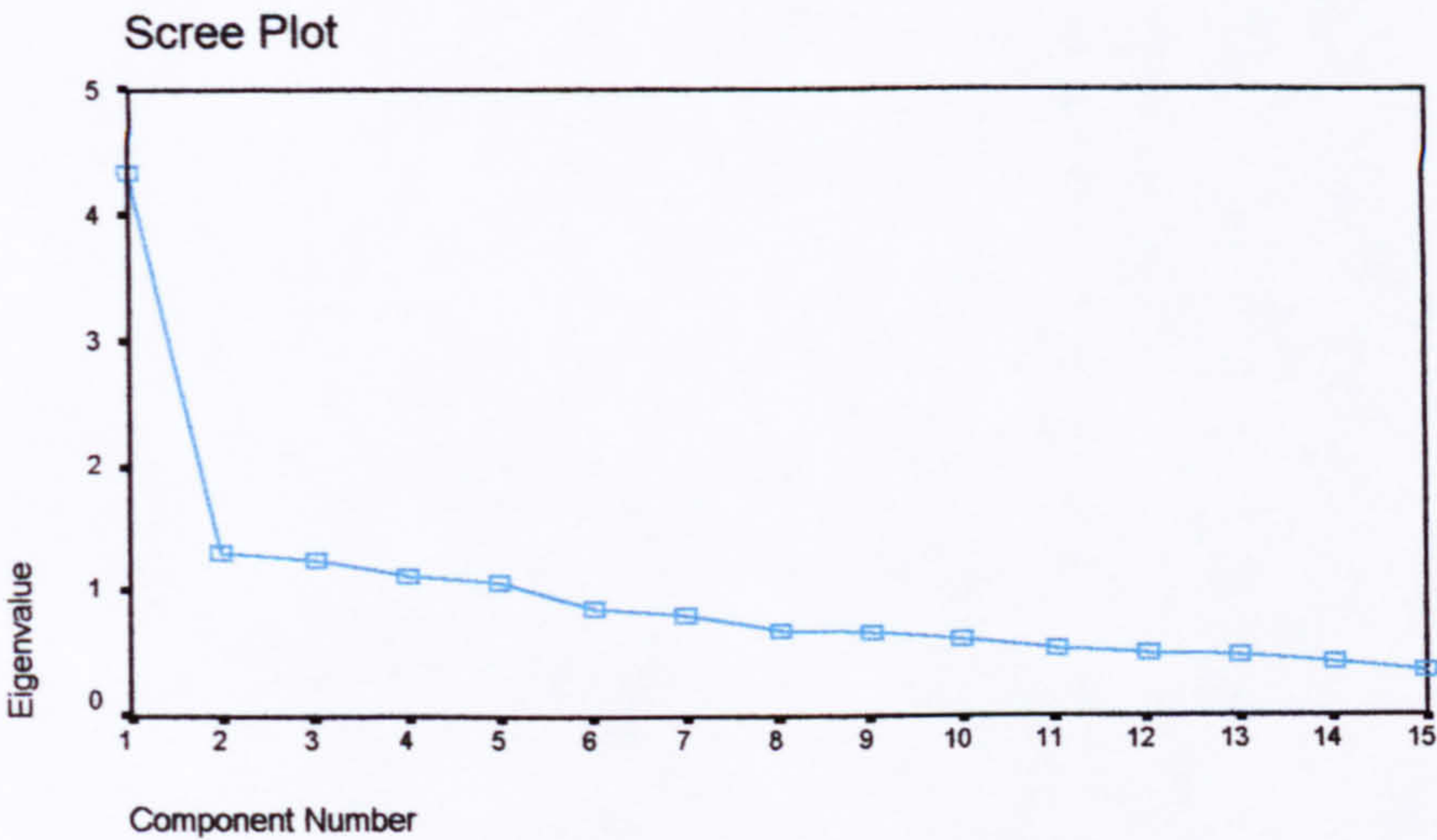
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
SOC2	.815			
SOC1	.726			
SOC7	.586			
SOC6	.505			
ETH2		.774		
ETH3		.706		
REG1		.659		
SOC4		.582		
SOC3		.460		
ECO5			.786	
ECO6			.619	
ECO7			.509	
SOC5			.328	
REG2				.844
REG3				.717

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

**Appendix 10 Selected Factor Analysis Outputs for the
Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, UK
(Eigenvalues > 1)**

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.826
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1211.402
	df	105
	Sig.	.000



Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
ETH2	.790				
ETH3	.699				
REG1	.627				
SOC3	.460				
SOC2		.812			
SOC1		.766			
SOC6			.693		
SOC5			.671		
SOC7			.576		
SOC4			.524		
REG2				.845	
REG3				.710	
ECO5					.761
ECO7					.671
ECO6					.562

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Appendix 11 Selected Factor Analysis Outputs for the Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, China (4 Factors)

Total Variance Explained

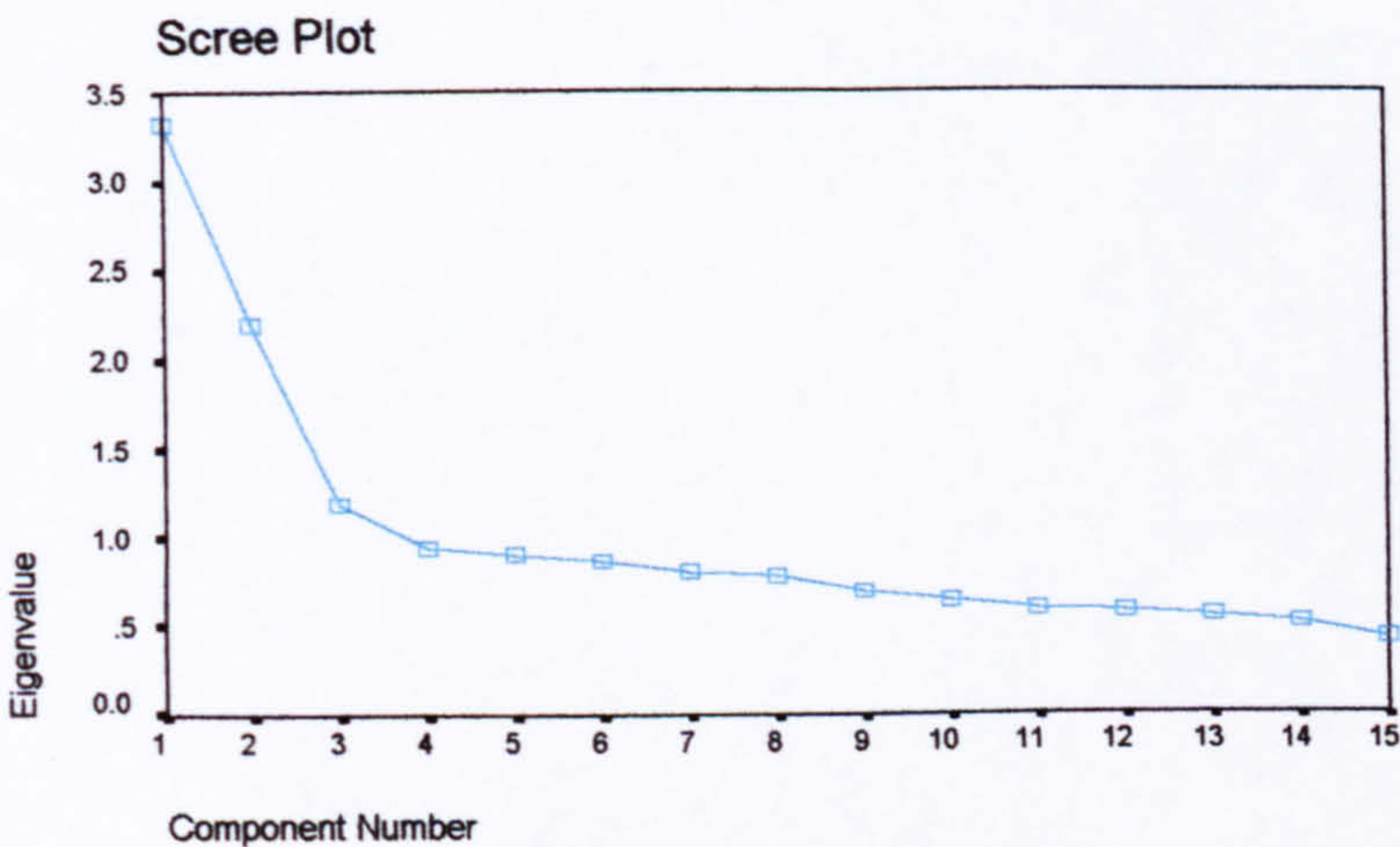
Component	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance
1	3.327	22.182	3.327	22.182	2.331	15.542
2	2.196	14.641	2.196	14.641	2.072	13.810
3	1.186	7.904	1.186	7.904	1.812	12.083
4	.941	6.271	.941	6.271	1.434	9.563
5	.906	6.042				
6	.868	5.789				
7	.800	5.332				
8	.777	5.179				
9	.695	4.634				
10	.642	4.283				
11	.589	3.926				
12	.580	3.869				
13	.552	3.679				
14	.516	3.442				
15	.424	2.828				
		100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

**Appendix 11 Selected Factor Analysis Outputs for the
Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, China
(4 Factors)**

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.			.803
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1438.924	
	df	105	
	Sig.	.000	



Rotated Component Matrix^a

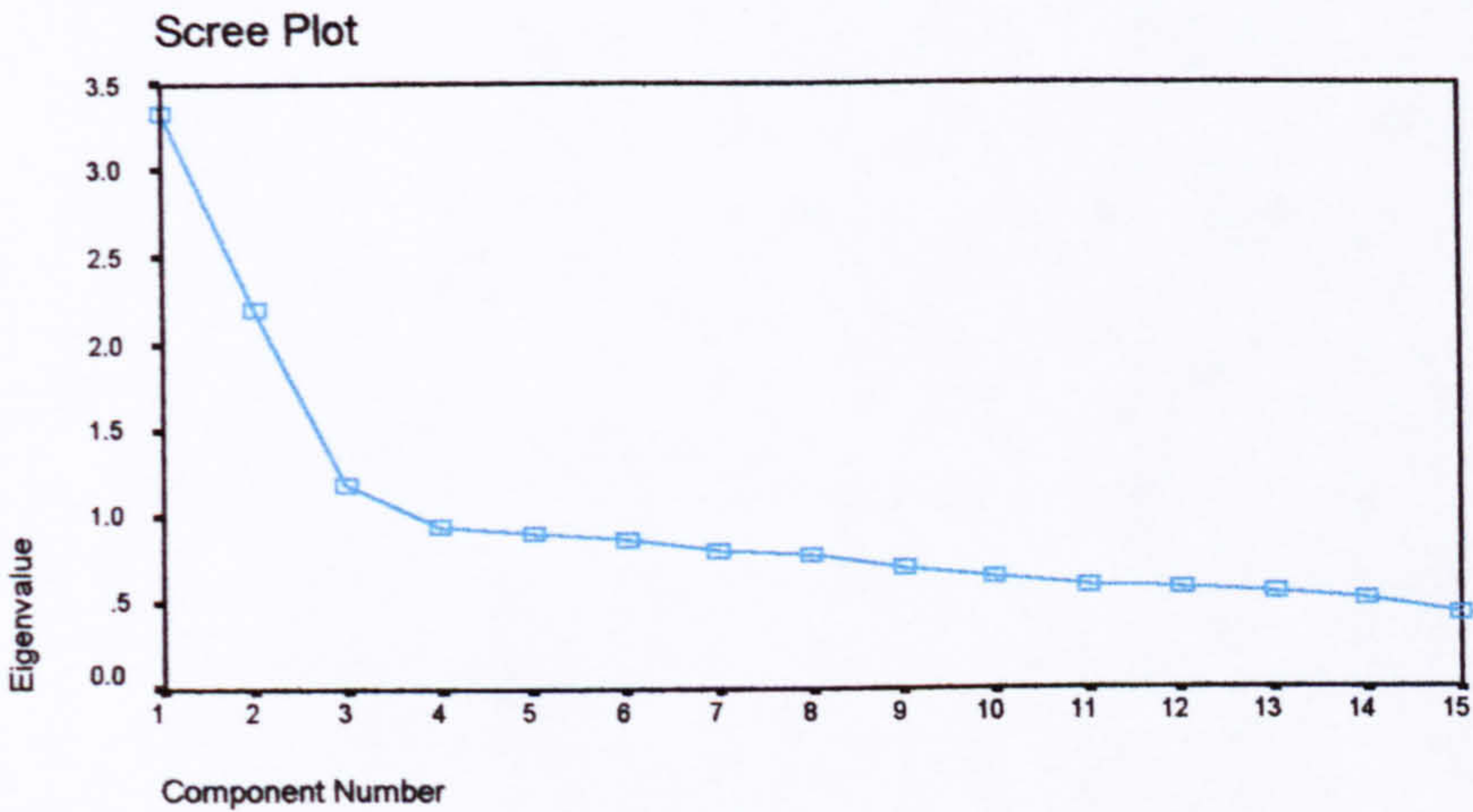
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
REG3	.691			
REG2	.689			
REG1	.667			
SOC5	.574			
SOC6		.678		
SOC3		.634		
SOC1		.560		
SOC4		.546		
ECO7		.446		
SOC2		.421		.407
ETH2			.785	
ETH3	.470		.643	
SOC7			.636	
ECO6				.754
ECO5				.645

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

**Appendix 11 Selected Factor Analysis Outputs for the
Attitudes Towards Advertising in General, China
(Eigenvalues > 1)**

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.			.803
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1438.924	
	df	105	
	Sig.	.000	



Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	1	2	3
ETH2	.698		
SOC4	.644		
SOC3	.617		
SOC7	.586		
SOC6	.493		
REG1		.728	
REG3		.708	
REG2		.635	
ETH3	.439	.627	
SOC5		.488	
ECO6			.706
SOC1			.560
ECO5		.429	.536
SOC2			.510
ECO7			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.